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Effects of reading aloud in English on the reading ability and attitudes of Spanish-speaking children.

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EFFECTS OF READING ALOUD IN ENGLISH ON THE READING ABILITY AND ATTITUDES OF SPANISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN

A Dissertation Presented

By

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To

My daughter, Sheila, for her understanding

and

My Parents, for their caring

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Effects of Reading Aloud in English on the
Reading Ability and Attitudes of
Spanish-Speaking Children

(May 1986)

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The primary goal of this dissertation is to examine some of the effects of a read aloud program on the attitudes toward reading and the English reading comprehension of Spanish-speaking children in the primary grades.

The first chapter provides the historical background of teaching methods in English as a second language. The chapter describes the unsteady relationship between the techniques developed for foreign and/or first language teaching and second language learning. This study poses the question of whether reading aloud, a technique widely used in English monolingual classrooms, can be transferred to the second language classroom where the conceptual, experiential, and linguistic background of the English as a second language learner is so profoundly different from that of the English monolingual learner. The effects of this transference on the second language learner's reading ability and the attitudes toward reading constitute the focus of the study.

The second chapter reviews the literature in the areas of reading and bilingualism, reading aloud, and reading attitudes. The review points out two significant findings. First, it reveals that there is

very little cogent research available on the topic of reading and bilingualism. Second, the literature available on reading aloud and the measurement of reading attitudes was found to focus almost exclusively on English monolingual learners rather than on second language learners.

The third chapter describes the research plan, which follows an experimental design using a control group, pre- and post-testing, and t-test analysis of the responses of fifty-three Spanish-speaking students enrolled in a bilingual elementary program. The tests used were the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, a standardized measure, and an attitude measure adapted by the researcher. A teacher's observation checklist was also used to record students' responses to the readings.

The findings of the study presented in Chapter IV are briefly summarized as follows:

1. A positive trend supporting the use of reading aloud in the ESL classroom was observed, although the findings were not statistically significant.

2. Teacher observations indicate that individual reading selections stimulated increased verbal and nonverbal student interaction during the read aloud sessions.

Chapter V offers a summary of the study, the conclusions, and the recommendations for applications of the findings, improvement of the study, and possible further research.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Historical Background of Teaching Methods in English as a Second Language

For over a century, the questions related to the beginning reading processes of native or dominant English speakers have been the focus of intense research and study in the United States and elsewhere (Huey, 1968). These investigations have unquestionably produced valuable evidence which has helped to change widely accepted views on the nature of the reading process. These views, once founded on common sense perceptions which regarded the reading process as a movement from sounds to letters, to combinations of letters, to words, to short sentences, to longer sentences, have been successfully challenged by the results of scientific study (Cronbach, 1963). Equally noteworthy has been the continuous experimentation with a variety of reading methodologies. The myriad of conclusions reached and solutions offered as a result of this experimentation have helped to clarify many issues concerned with the relationship that exists between oral language and written language. Beginning with the early alphabetic method which was "used almost universally in Greece and Rome and in European countries well into the nineteenth century . . . (and) in America until about 1870 . . ." (Huey, 1968, p. 265) and continuing through the use of phonic and phonetic methods and the persistent reappearances of word methods and sentence methods, educational scholars have continued the search and

debate, so that today we have a better understanding of the reading process than we have ever had before. Foremost contributor to this understanding has been the science of psycholinguistics. Outstanding in this field have been the works of Frank Smith and Kenneth Goodman in the area of reading and Noam Chomsky in the area of linguistics. These authors have focused our attention away from the inflexibilities of the study of the oral and written aspects of language into the direction of the invividual as speaker or reader, or what Frank Smith has termed the theoretical perspective of "inside-out" (1982, p. 193).

In the area of reading in a second language, the development of sound reading approaches and methods has unfortunately not been as successful. As new methods and techniques have been introduced into the field of second language instruction, the teaching of reading has come into and out of the limelight in regular cycles of repudiation and euphoric rediscovery. Each surge has been accompanied by the expected attempts at justification, and each time the justification has had very little to do with sound pedagogical practices based on what is right for the learner and more to do with politics and economics (Grittner, 1977). Because much of English as a Second Language (hereafter ESL) instruction has been modelled on the methodologies prpoosed for modern foreign language teaching and first language reading instruction, each movement in these two fields has been paralleled (mostly belatedly) by similar movements in the field of ESL. The results have been a rather slow zigzagging motion between first language and foreign language techniques which have only inhibited progress in the field of ESL reading

instruction. Neither foreign language instruction nor first language instruction can be considered identical to teaching English as a Second Language. Obvious differences lie in two very important areas.

First, there is the question of motivation. Individuals who learn a foreign language while still living in the first language environment generally do so because of self-motivating factors. Foreign language learning at the elementary school level is a rare phenomenon in the United States (Grittner, 1977) and where it does exist (mostly in private schools), it is completely on a volunteer basis. The children are there because they want to be there or because their parents want them to be there because of the prestige associated with learning another language. In addition, the classes themselves are geared not toward achievement test-taking, nor toward equipping the learners with survival communication skills, but rather toward the development of appropriate or positive attitudes toward learning a second language and culture. In other words, it is a reinforcement of motivational factors which already exist in these children. Older learners who voluntarily choose to learn a foreign language are similarly motivated. Often it is not only the intrinsic value of learning a second language that motivates older learners, but also the extrinsic, i.e., economical, educational, values of knowing another language which play a key role in making the decision. This is an important word in this context--decision. That is, a conscious decision is made by the individual based on the examination of a variety of alternatives. This power to make choices and decisions, in the United States, is generally associated with upper- and middle-social classes.

Those who represent linguistic, ethnic, and racial minorities are forced to struggle for their most basic educational rights. Thus, when a group of learners can be characterized as lacking these powerful motivating factors, as is the case with most minorities in the United States who are powerless in the decision-making processes of the educational system, it becomes very evident that learning a foreign language in the safety of one's own linguistic and cultural community cannot be equated to learning a second language out of necessity in a hostile environment and under the constant pressure of the criticism and scrutiny of the members of the host community (Fuentes, in conversation).

In spite of these rather obvious contradictions, in the United States teaching English as a second language has continued to follow in the often obscured footsteps of foreign language teaching approaches. For example, the Grammar-Translation Method (or Classical Approach) focused on reading as the primary goal of foreign language instruction. The accurate reading and analysis of literature and texts (originally Greek and Latin) constituted the central activities of the classroom. Students participated in oral reading, analysis of sentence structure, the parts of speech, morphology and orthography, and other physical aspects of the written language. Although this method seems to have had very little relation to the teaching of English to non-native speakers, it was quickly adopted by English language educators of the time.

Although the Classical Approach persisted well into the nineteenth century, it was succeeded by the Direct Method. This method greatly deemphasized the role of reading; instead, the skills associated with

oral communication became the prime goal of second language instruction. Grittner quotes Edwin Zeydel (Grittner, 1977, p. 7):

> . . . they (the Natural and Direct Methods) stress the spoken word and the oral-aural approach and represent a reaction to the grammar-translation method. . . . But the latter is less radical. It exploits the methodology of its predecessors eclectically, does not throw grammar overboard yet never teaches it for its own sake, and follows a well-constructed plan of presentation.

The Direct Method of language instruction seemed on the surface to be rather short-lived; by the end of World War I, the oral aspects of foreign language learning had fallen into disfavor with educational decision- and policymakers. Once again, there was a renewed interest in a Neo-Classical Reading Approach which emphasized those aspects of language learning that dealt almost entirely with the written form of language. However, the Direct Method continued to flourish, particularly within the private sectors where language schools such as Berlitz thrived, and continue to thrive, on this method. Once again, the reasons for readopting this approach were totally unrelated to pedagogical issues, and rested instead on political questions of isolationism versus expansionism, and other issues relating to economics, and educational snobbery and elitism (Grittner, 1977, pp. 10-11).

World War II brought about still another change. The Reading Approach was abandoned, and into its place came the "Army Method." Furnished with a philosophical base and a new name, the "Army Method" became the "Audio-lingual Method" or the "Oral-Aural Method," and as might be expected from its name, reading and writing were once again removed to a secondary position of importance. This method and approach continues to

have a significant impact on language teaching practices today; however, it has been seriously challenged by the Rationalists or Cognitivists (Prator, n.d.) who, although they have not gone full-swing back into a Reading Approach at the expense of oral communication skills, have moved the skill of reading several rungs up the ladder of importance of second language learning requisites.

This dependency on the prescripts of foreign language teaching has seriously hampered the movement of ESL instruction in the United States. Moreover, whenever this dependency on foreign teaching techniques has not figured as the key issue, then it has been the dependency on first language teaching techniques, which brings us to the second reason why teaching ESL cannot be equated to teaching a foreign language or a first language. In the name of equality, for long periods of time limited- or non-English speaking children were treated just "like everyone else." The same alphabetic, phonic, word and sentence methods used to teach native speakers were also applied to the non-native speaking learners. To say that such approaches are totally unfair to the non-native speaker is a mild understatement. Jeannette Veatch has stated that the native monolingual "child entering school at age six has a full ninety percent of his/her adult level of speech" (Veatch, 1978). Jacqueline Kiraithe makes this difference even more conspicuous with the following statements (Kiraithe, 1980, p. 207):

> By age six, this child (the native monolingual speaker) has been exposed to the sounds, words and grammatical structure of his home language--English--for at least 20,000 hours. . . . All of the basic structures of the language, as well as a great deal of vocabulary, have been internalized.

She adds that such a child also has,

> . . . an active vocabulary, on the average, of 2,500 words . . . and a listening comprehension (or passive) vocabulary of as many as 20,000 words. (p. 207)

In addition to these rather natural advantages, the native monolingual children are often exposed to readiness-type programs at such early levels as nursery school, pre-kindergarten, and kindergarten, which the majority of non-native speaking children seldom have the opportunity to experience because of economical constraints and the inaccessibility of quality services for the poor. Also, non-native children are often suffering from the traumas associated with leaving behind loved ones and known, friendly surroundings. These traumas, generally referred to as "culture shock" (Brown, 1980), tend to distort their attitudes and their perceptions of the world and of themselves. To compound these problems, upon entering schools in the dominant culture, many are subjected to overt forms of racism and other acts of violence and hostility, as we have recently seen in the Southwestern parts of the United States and in Boston, Massachusetts (Steven, 1981).

Another factor which emphasizes the fundamental differences that exist between native and non-native learners is the higher probability of poverty level home living conditions that exists for the latter group of children. The tremendous impact of these factors on learners' ability to achieve cannot be underestimated (Borges, 1975; Alvira-Benites, 1977). An examination of these factors makes it rather obvious that the teaching of English as a Second Language should not and, in fact, cannot successfully be carried out in the same manner that foreign languages are taught. Wherever approaches, methods or techniques seem to overlap

from one field onto another it would seem wise to examine these all the more carefully. It is very easy to become overzealous with newfound techniques and to therefore assume that they can be transferred into totally different environments without seeking the appropriate empirical evidence. Doubtlessly, these transfers of methods and techniques from one set of circumstance to another have been attempted in the past, and they will probably continue long into the future. The field of ESL is particularly vulnerable to these instructional maneuvers, for it is only within the past twenty years that educators have dared to say that children are different from one another. Linguistical and cultural differences can now be acknowledged, and the importance of addressing different needs in different ways has only recently received significant investigative attention. It is through these investigations that the tremendous body of existing approaches, methods, and techniques can be sorted out so as to permit the selection, adaptation, or development of methodologies appropriate to the needs of limited- or non-English speakers.

Rationale and Significance of the Study

Learning to read is a complex process which presents special problems to non-native speakers who lack the experiential, conceptual, and linguistical framework required for the learning-to-read process in the second language. This problem is compounded by reading instruction techniques which are largely irrelevant to the needs, abilities, and interests of young second language learners. This unfortunate

combination of conditions generally results in the frustration, failure, and ultimate alienation of the learner. For example, by the age of nine, Hispanic[1] students fall at least 10.7% below the national average in reading (NAEP, 1977); and, unfortunately, these numbers worsen, for even those who make it "up" through the middle schools and high schools appear to have made a backward movement in their reading progress, as the reading level of the average seventeen-year-old Hispanic falls at least 11.4% below the national average (NAEP, 1977). Significantly and historically the same has not been the case for white students who, when measured, not only show above the national average but also demonstrate improved scores by the time they reach senior high school (NAEP, 1977).

This situation clearly signals the need for change, and it is this writer's opinion that such change should come early in the second language learner's experience. Experience has shown that the indiscriminate transfer of methods and techniques from the areas of foreign language instruction and native English Language Arts to ESL cannot bring about the needed changes (Smith, 1980). It is equally obvious that remediation and compensatory education can do very little to alter the path of reading failure (Fader, 1982; Kozol, 1980). Therefore, it is imperative to begin laying the foundations of good reading early and consistently. It is important to begin on the right foot, even before

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[1]In this case, the term "Hispanic" has been selected, as used by NAEP, because these figures reflect the general condition of not only Mexican-Americans, Cubans, and other Spanish-speaking children in schools in the United States, but very particularly that of Puerto Rican children who constitute the focus of this study. (For further clarification, see "Definition of Terms.")

formal schooling begins, but this option could certainly prove to be an interesting topic of study and investigation in its own right. The focus of this study, however, has been on a reading instruction method intended for use at the primary school level and with potential for incorporation into existing Bilingual Education Models and the ESL components of these models.

Current research in the area of reading methods and techniques has rendered substantive empirical data indicating the values of reading aloud to native English speaking children (McCormick, 1981); unfortunately, similar evidence is not available to support the use of this teaching technique with non-native English speakers. In this study, this writer sought to find the evidence that would support the appropriate use of reading aloud in English to limited- or non-English speaking learners. With the evidence gathered in this study, teachers of non-native speakers can make more informed decisions as to the value of using reading aloud to spark in native and non-native English speaking children alike not only the desire to read but also the knowledge that reading is a valuable activity.

This study does not only answer teachers' questions about the appropriate techniques and particular considerations which must be taken into account when transferring the read aloud experience to limited- and non-English speaking learners, but also it is designed to help administrators examine the possibilities of formally integrating this activity into the ESL curriculum throughout the elementary grades. It is also hoped that school librarians will benefit from the information gathered

in this study so that they will be able to make more appropriate selections and suggestions to teachers about ESL appropriate read-aloud materials. Finally, ESL teacher training programs should begin to dispel the notion that reading is a process too difficult and complex for the non-native speaker to attempt when beginning to learn a second language. What is needed is the research that can provide information about the approaches, methods, and techniques which make reading an integral part of the second language program. An attempt to provide some of this needed information is made by examining a familiar incipient reading technique--reading aloud as it applies to the limited or non-English speaking learner.

Statement of the Problem

This investigation has examined the relationship between teachers' oral reading in English and the comprehension and attitudes toward reading of Spanish-speaking children. More specifically, both qualitative and quantitative measures have been used to arrive at answers to the following major questions:

1. Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the English reading comprehension of Spanish-speaking children?

2. Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the overall attitudes toward reading of Spanish-speaking children?

Other questions examined include the following:

1. Are there differences between the read aloud techniques used with native English speakers and those to be used with non-native speakers?

2. Is the selection of the read-aloud materials the same for both native and non-native populations?

3. If selection of read-aloud materials is different for non-native speakers, what selection criteria should be applied?

Answers to these three questions were arrived at as a result of direct observations of monolingual English speaking classes, monolingual Spanish-speaking classes and ESL classes. Also, the responses to the questionnaire included in Appendix G provided information directly related to the last three questions.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study has been to examine the effects of a reading instruction technique; namely, Read Aloud, which provides second language learners with immediate and purposeful contact with the written form of language without exposing them to the rigors and frustrations associated with traditional reading instruction. Second language instruction has traditionally advocated the delay of reading instruction until the child has a command of the oral aspects of the language. It becomes immediately evident that the term "command" is extremely vague, and has yet to be defined to the satisfaction of most ESL educators. Stated differently, this study has sought to determine whether or not it is necessary to wait until the learner has a command of the second language before beginning reading instruction when a careful plan which takes into account the cultural and linguistical differences of the learners is used as the method of instruction. The intention here has been to find the answer to this question by examining the effects of

teachers' oral reading on the reading comprehension and attitudes toward reading in the second language of Spanish-speaking children.

Assumptions

The motivation to carry out this study arose from the unsettling realization that most Hispanic children in the United States are in fact doomed to academic failure because of pervasive problems in the area of reading. The chronic nature of these difficulties is not exhibited exclusively in the secondary or middle schools or even with children who have recently arrived from Spanish-speaking countries; the problem can be observed as early as the elementary school where children getting reading instruction from teachers specifically trained for this task are nevertheless failing. By the age of nine, Hispanic children are one to three years below reading level in English, and the problem grows progressively worse as the students are passed along from one grade to another (NAEP, 1977). Often these children are placed in mainstream classrooms where they are exposed prematurely to reading demands for which they have not been adequately prepared. Placement procedures which rely on oral proficiency tests and/or sketchy interview procedures condemn many to early failure. Knowledge of the oral aspects of a language does not by itself guarantee that an individual has sufficient knowledge of its written aspects so as to enable him/her to read. This is easily evidenced by the startling number of native English-speaking adults in the United States who have not learned how to read in spite of their obvious "command" of the oral language (Kozol, 1980).

Theoretical Assumption 1: A real problem exists for Hispanics learning to read in ESL. This problem results from misconstrued methodologies which inhibit the learner's achievement in the area of reading.

The question then arises as to what knowledge an individual must have that will enable him/her to read. Smith (1982) sheds some light on this question in the following statements, ". . . what the brain does in reading any kind of test is in fact the same endeavor, to make sense of a particular piece of written language in light of prior knowledge and current intentions, and expectations of the reader." He adds that, "There are no special kinds of skills that beginners must learn and exercise." These statements point to two important theories which underly any understanding of the reading process from a psycholinguistic perspective. The first is that reading is a process which involves the reader's "prior knowledge," knowledge gathered from his/her previous experiences with print and with the world represented in print. Reading, according to Smith, also involves the reader's active participation and contribution of a purpose, an understanding of why the reading task is being undertaken, in other words, a view of the light at the end. In addition, Smith proposes the additional requirement of some reasonable expectations on the part of the reader concerning the content and structure of the text based on whatever prior educational knowledge and intentions the reader may have internalized before the reading task at hand.

Theoretical Assumption 2: Reading involves prior knowledge and experience with print, active participation on the part of the reader, and finally, the presence of "reasonable expectations" on the part of the reader.

Another important assumption upon which this dissertation is based is suggested by Smith's above-mentioned "no special kinds of skills" rule

of beginning reading. In effect, the position is that it is unnecessary to break written language down into small, meaningless fragments in an effort to simplify the beginning reading process. Duggins (1982) says, "In the past decade, attention to 'accountability' has frequently come to mean practice skills, fractioned bits of reading and writing. In attending to these skills, we have forgotten to attend to human nature" (p. 181). These attempts at simplification have also been translated into the development of simplified texts. Fader (1982) comments on these types of texts; he states, ". . . Semiliterate readers do not need semiliterate books. The simplistic language of much of the life-leached literature inflicted upon the average schoolchild is not justifiable from any standpoint. Bright, average, dull--however one classifies the child--she is immeasurably better off with books that are too difficult for her than books that are too simple" (p. 95).

In summary, this writer supports the theoretical perspectives which find reprehensible those approaches to reading which systematically dissect and impose superficial lines of demarcation and compartmentalization, thereby limiting the student's perspective and unnecessarily delaying his/her learning of important aspects of the second language. Where such dissection occurs prior to the student's acquisition of an experiential knowledge base and the development of the concepts of written language and of the world represented in print, the potential reader may be irreversibly turned off by the meaninglessness of the "reading" task.

Theoretical Assumption 3: Reading is a holistic process which, when broken down into separate parts, loses its integrity and consequently its meaningfulness.

Theoretical Assumption 4: Incipient readers do not require any special "kinds of skills" which will help them to become readers.

Another theoretical assumption which serves as the basis for this study is found in Nancy Modiano's (1966) study of the education of Indian children in the Highlands of Chiapas, Mexico, which provides substantive evidence to support the teaching of literacy in the mother tongue before exposing young learners to second language literacy. In her study, she states that "it now appears that youngsters of linguistic minorities learn to read with greater comprehension in the national second language when they first become literate in their mother tongue, rather than when they receive all reading instruction in the national language." Subsequent research (Modiano, 1968, 1973; Saville and Troike, 1971; Anderson, 1976) have supported Modiano's early findings.

It is this researcher's position that when linguistic and culturally different children are taught to read in their native language first, not only is the learning process facilitated because the children can understand the concepts being taught without having to overcome the hurdles of impaired lines of communication, but also their self-concept is enhanced as they perceive their language and culture to be valuable entities coexisting in the larger society. This study does not presume to impose the notion that second language literacy is to be preferred over first language literacy. On the contrary, a basic assumption held here is that first language literacy can provide a foundation upon which to build strong programs of reading in the second language.

Theoretical Assumption 5: Children learning a second language will perform better all around in that language if they have achieved a sound base in the native language first.

Limitations of the Study

The stated purpose of this study was to examine the effects of one reading instruction technique on the attitudes toward reading and the reading comprehension of Spanish-speaking children. This study therefore focuses solely on the relationships that may or may not exist between reading aloud and comprehension and between reading aloud and attitudes toward reading. It has not been the intention of this writer to embark on any indepth examination of the cause-and-effect relationships that may exist between reading comprehension and reading attitudes.

Also, teacher-related variables such as teachers' attitudes toward reading or reading aloud do not form a central issue in this study and have not been considered as part of the analysis of the data. The two teachers of the children in the study expressed their willingness to participate in the read aloud programs, though neither had previously read aloud to their ESL students.

In addition, this study is limited to the Hispanic population of one public elementary school in the Massachusetts city where the study was conducted. Because the sample is made up entirely of Puerto Rican children from low-income families, the focus has been on this Puerto Rican population and has not attempted to address the specific or particular condition of other Hispanic groups such as Chicanos, Cubans,

Dominicans or other Latinos living in the United States.

Finally, although randomization procedures were applied to the selection of control and experimental groups, other intervening variables arising from the limitations imposed by the use of intact groups may have had some effects on the outcomes of this study. These variables (i.e., time of the reading, classroom setting, teacher style, etc.) were monitored by this writer, although no formal controls could be imposed on all of these because of the nature of the school setting used for the study.

Definition of Terms

The following is a list of terms which will be used in this study:

English as a Second Language: This term refers to the learning of English for the purpose of obtaining access to and surviving within the social, political and economic structures of a dominant English-speaking society. It is to be distinguished from English as a Foreign Language which is voluntarily studied by individuals who are essentially socially, politically and economically mobile.

Hispanic: The most benign of the many terms used to refer to the Spanish background individual. It is non-labelling in the sense that it excludes neither the English surnamed nor the English dominant Spanish

background individual; it is non-judgemental with regard to the language ability of the individual (as are the terms "Bilingual," "Spanish-speaking," and "Spanish-dominant"). Additionally, it is the cognate of a Spanish term widely used for the purpose of self-description by these groups (e.g., hispano, la comunidad hispana). Also, it is an academically recognized term which carries with it certain linguistical, cultural, and historical implications as is evidenced by its use in the titles of various well-known journals. It is not to be inferred that this term is not without its problems. One major criticism used by opponents to this term is the same one used by opponents to the term Anglo--Where do "Anglos" come from? What common traits do they share? Culture? Language? Ethnicity? The same questions can be asked of those who are "Hispanic."

Limited English Proficient: Because the sample used in this study comes from one school system, which adheres to the state mandated guidelines for transferring students out of Bilingual classrooms into mainstream classes, all of the subjects can be said to be Limited English Proficient as they have not achieved the most minimal criteria for transference

into the mainstream program which is oral fluency in the second language.

Comprehension: Although any conceptual definition of comprehension could be strongly debated by experts in the field of comprehension, this writer perceives reading comprehension to involve the formulation of the meaning of a written text (word, sentence, or passage) through an association of the text with conceptual experiences in the reader's background. The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test provides opportunities for the measurement of such association of printed text with concepts represented in pictures.

Attitude: The Dictionary of Behavioral Science defines attitude as "a learned predisposition to react consistently (either positively or negatively to certain persons, objects or concepts). Attitudes have cognitive, affective and behavioral components." This study will focus on the affective component of attitudes, particularly as this is reflected in the feelings of like or dislike expressed about reading in terms of both school and leisure time activities.

* * * * * * *

In summary, for the purpose of demonstrating the rather arbitrary way in which teaching methods were adopted (not adapted) from other

fields into ESL, this chapter has presented a brief outline of the historical background of ESL teaching methods and approaches. In addition, the need for carrying out the study has been established, and the specific problem to be addressed has been posed in the form of two major research questions. The chapter has also provided a statement of the purpose as well as the theoretical assumptions upon which the study is based. Finally, two technical aspects of the study are included: the analysis of the limitations and the definition of terms. The chapter which follows presents a review of the literature in these related areas.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature for this study centers on three major areas: reading and bilingualism, reading aloud, and reading attitudes. The first area provides the general background of the fields of reading and bilingualism. This writer has attempted to examine the literature which not only defines the reading process as a monolingual phenomenon, but more particularly that part of the literature which provides insights into biliteracy and the bilingual reader.

The second area covered in the review is the state-of-the-art of reading aloud to children as an instructional technique. Although much of the existing literature in this area pertains to the monolingual learner, it is precisely this lack of information about the effects of this technique on the second language learner that initially motivated this study.

The third area examined is that which deals with (a) the role played by attitudes in the reading process, and (b) the measurement of attitudes toward reading. Some attention has been drawn to an examination of existing attitude scales. This examination in fact sets the stage for the adaptation by this writer of extant scales in order to respond to the particular needs and characteristics of the sample used in the study, but which at the same time would not limit the scale to one group or setting.

Reading and Bilingualism

According to Philip D. Smith (1980), "the literature on the reading process in bilinguals and in bilingual education programs is largely a collection of teacher testimonials and anecdotes." Particularly in the area of reading, bilingualism is "still viewed by many as a language disability evidenced by the continuous efforts of remediation and mainstreaming" (Smith, 1980). Smith further indicates that "careful, objective, and cogent research is rare," and that the tendency continues to be the application of "first language techniques, especially those associated with remediation, bodily into bilingual education programs with little thought to using distinctive techniques perhaps better suited to the learning processes of linguistically different children."

These same views were expressed earlier by Diana Natalicio (1976) who also found that, "The limited research that is cited typically reports on experiences from other countries." Nevertheless, Nancy Modiano's 1968 study of 1,600 children from 26 schools in three villages in the Chiapas highlands of Mexico had a tremendous impact on bilingual education in the United States and elsewhere. Modiano reported the academic superiority in significant areas of the children in schools where the mother tongue was used as the language of instruction and the goal of initial literacy. Supporting the recommendations that came out of that study are two standard works on bilingual education, Bilingual Schooling in the United States (Anderson and Boyer, 1970) and A Handbook of Bilingual Education (Saville and Troike, 1971). This position is also supported by Eleanor Wall Thomis (1976), a leading scholar in reading

in a second language. She states:

> It is reasonable to assume that a Spanish-speaking pupil should read first the language which he has acquired in his home. . . . Like his English-speaking peer who enters school at this same development stage, the Spanish-speaking child also had to deal only with oral language. Upon entering the classroom, the child must begin to acquire skills in using the conventions of written language which represent the spoken language of the family and community into which he has been born. (p. 27)

All these works were in great measure influenced by the 1953 UNESCO report which concluded that "It is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue."

As was stated earlier, Modiano's investigations provide the research evidence for one of the basic assumptions of this study. That is, learning to read becomes an easier task when it is initiated in the dominant language of the learner. The learner is not only able to use the syntactic and semantic knowledge that she/he already has about the language, but she/he can also better understand explanations given about the reading process. Thus, the rewards of reading are more quickly discernible to the learner.

> No one can deny the importance of success begetting success. What can be more successful for a Spanish speaker than learning how to read the language he already knows how to speak, the language in which he had developed competence during the early childhood years! By building this "success orientation" into the reading process, we are more likely to succeed in achieving a positive attitude towards learning and reading--another widely accepted prerequisite for success. (Santillana, Teacher's Guide to Discovering)

Without negating the inherent truth and value of the above findings, the present study nevertheless attempts to determine if reading aloud can productively co-exist with the native language approach to biliteracy

and at the same time be used to introduce reading to the second language learner sooner than the one to two (sometimes even three) years that has generally been suggested as the pre-reading (or waiting) period for elementary school children by current ESL methods and approaches.

Another area of interest in the literature on second language acquisition is that of transference of skills, a subject this writer has not entered into, although it has been generally accepted that some transference of knowledge about the first language may contribute positively to the acquisition of similar skills in the second language (Brown, p. 116). This, however, according to Engle (1975) and Natalicio (1976), has not been successfully researched and no conclusive evidence exists to support this transfer of skills theory. Whether or not transference occurs, and, if it does, what the nature of that transference is is of little concern to this study. More important are those theories (Smith, 1982) which deemphasize the importance of hierarchical skills, and which focus on the interaction of the learner with printed text in such a way that by learning to read the learner acquires a variety of skills rather than learning the skills in order to learn how to read.

Smith (1982) repeatedly emphasizes the point that reading is "comprehension," reading is "meaning," reading is "understanding." This recurring message is founded on the theory that the ability to read does not come about as a result of the ability to recognize letters, or even words, but rather from the ability to identify meaning. Goodman, Goodman, and Flores' (1979) discussion of "Three Common Assumptions" held about learning to read in a second language reiterates this notion. They state

that, "Proficient readers especially, but all readers to some degree, focus on constructing meaning throughout the reading process. In order to be efficient at the process, readers are selective about the use of cues available and use their own knowledge about language and their experiences to predict and construct meaning as they read" (p. 27).

In their discussion of a closely related topic, Carrel and Eisterhold propose that "the basic point is that much of the meaning understood from a text is really not actually in the text, per se, but in the reader, in the background or schematic knowledge of the reader" (p. 559). The authors point out that a distinction must be drawn between formal schemata and content schemata. The first of these is the background knowledge a reader has about "the rhetorical organizational structures of different types of tests" (p. 560). Content schemata, on the other hand, is that knowledge which a reader possesses about the particular content of a text; that is, the topic or subject matter of the text. A reader's inability to utilize either one or the other of these two types of knowledge may result in non-comprehension. Furthermore, both types of knowledge are equally as essential for first language reading comprehension as for second language reading comprehension.

Everywhere in the current literature on reading the emphasis is on a whole task approach, of which reading for meaning as described by Smith, Goodman, et al., and Carrell and Eisterhold, is the most fundamental precept of this psycholinguistic conception of the reading process. Thus, acquisition and the effective utilization of the learner of appropriate "cues," "knowledge," or other information relevant to the task are

the essentials of comprehension. In attempting to define the differences that exist between bilingual and monolingual readers and how these differences may affect the reading process, Goodman, et al., conclude that "language diversity has to be one of the most salient features of bilingual learners." This condition, however, does not void bilingual learners of other knowledge applicable to the task. The authors divide "bilingual" readers into three groups: (a) those who are fluent in English and who will "act like native speakers in reading English"; (b) those who are monolingual in another language and who will be "unable to respond to English writing"; and (c) those who are developmental bilinguals, whose reading will "reflect not only their first language but the extent to which they are coming to control English phonology, grammar, orthography, lexicon, and idiom. . . . If they are learning to read English while they are learning to speak and understand spoken English, their reading will both reflect and contribute to their growing control" (p. 31). This classification is not incompatible with the theory that learning to read (regardless of language diversity) is basically the same process for both the bilingual and monolingual learner in terms of the use of appropriate cues, although there are obvious differences in the nature of the cues used by one group versus the other.

In the northeastern United States, Hispanic children entering schools in urban centers have had many hours of exposure to spoken English through television, radio, older siblings, family members and sometimes other members of the community. Through these means, even the monolingual Spanish-speaking child can quickly become saturated with not only oral English but

written English as well. Less recent arrivals are also exposed to similar experiences which place them in the group of developmental bilinguals for whom reading is an essential element in the development of their second language skills. Therefore, the reading behavior of all three bilingual groups described by Goodman, et al., "will both reflect and contribute to their growing control" in as far as they are able or permitted to function in the second language environment and to transform the knowledge they acquire into potential cues which can be applied to the reading task.

Reading Aloud

As previously mentioned, the research on reading aloud focuses (in general) on the monolingual learners, and more particularly on the monolingual preschool child. Sandra McCormick's survey (1981) of the research in this field clearly demonstrates this point. The majority of the subjects in the twelve studies she examined were preschoolers or nursery school children, and most were white, middle-class, English monolingual children (Berg-Cross and Berg-Cross, 1978; Chomsky, 1972; Durkin, 1974-75; Haskett and Lenfestey, 1974). None of these studies focused on the non-English or limited-English speaking child, though two of the studies (Swift, 1970; Burroughs, 1970) are directly concerned with "poverty groups" and the "disadvantaged." From the findings reported in the twelve studies contained in her analysis, McCormick concludes that, "Reading aloud to the preschooler can positively affect the child's language development, success in learning to read, specific reading interests and social attitudes and values." Carol Chomsky (1972)

reported that part of her investigation demonstrated that the greater the child's knowledge of "widely-read books, poems, and stories from children's literature . . . the higher, in general, is the child's linguistic stage."

In 1966, Dolores Durkin reported that the most outstanding characteristics of the "early readers" sampled in her study was their early exposure to books and to having books read aloud to them on a regular basis. (See also Anne D. Forester, 1977.) Unfortunately, school teachers and parents alike mistakenly assume that as children grow older it becomes less important to read aloud to them. Chow Low Tom's national survey (1969) indicated that "more than 60 percent of the third- and fourth-grade teachers did not read aloud to their classes. By sixth grade, the percentage climbed to 74 percent" (Trelease, 1982). Interestingly, McCormick (1981) reported that even many preschool teachers read aloud to children "only (as) an occasional activity, when the preschool teacher suddenly ends up with a few extra minutes." Hillman (1973) suggests that because "teachers are increasingly being asked to justify their activities . . . (reading) aloud to children then begins to be a luxury for which there is sparse time." She indicates that five major reasons for reading aloud to children have been "gleaned from recent linguistic and psycholinguistic research, folklore, and intuition." It is interesting to note that although Hillman is not specifically speaking to the topic of the limited-English speaker, the five reasons that she gives fully address many of the issues relating to the second language learner. Included here are the five reasons offered by Hillman for reading aloud to children:

(1) It allows the modeling of language patterns (syntactic and phonemic),

(2) It allows an identification with models,

(3) It provides a commonality of experience to listeners from diverse backgrounds,

(4) It promotes listening/reading comprehension skills, and

(5) It motivates children to <u>want</u> to read. (Hillman, 1975)

Goodman and Watson's (1977) proposal of a "Comprehension Centered Reading Program" begins with the suggestion of reading aloud to children. They state that, "Through such encounters (reading aloud), children learn that reading is important . . . , functional . . . , varied to content, style and language . . . , entertaining . . . , and worth the effort." This suggestion of reading aloud was carried over into the monograph quoted earlier by Goodman, et al. (1979) on reading and the bilingual child. The authors' first and strongest suggestion is that,

> Time must be found to read to children daily. All humans have greater receptive control than productive control. That is, they can understand through listening and reading more than they are able to produce through speaking and writing. Children can be read to from the literature of both languages that they are learning. This provides them with fine literature they cannot yet read for themselves, and it tunes their ears to structures of language and knowledge they cannot get through reading on their own. (Goodman, et al., 1979, p. 37)

Marcia Baghban (1972) suggests that one method of developing skills in English as a Second Language is by reading aloud to the child at home or by taking the child to the local library for "Story Hours." The importance of reading aloud in the home was investigated and reported by Shirley Brice Heath (1982). She states that, "Few parents are fully

conscious of what bedtime storytelling means as preparation for the kinds of learning and displays of knowledge expected in school." Heath explains that the "bedtime story routines" carry over directly into acceptable classroom behavior. Teachers expect children to come to school with a subset of behaviors developed in the home as a result of the read aloud routines. Thus when the middle-class child enters school (with middle-class teachers and administrators), the expectations for that child correspond to his/her home experiences. "Children," she states, "were expected to learn the following rules in literacy events in these nuclear households" (emphasis not in the original). The "rules" described by Heath are outlined below.

(1) Children are expected to give attention to books and information derived from books.

(2) Children, from the age of six months, acknowledge questions about books.

(3) From the time they start to talk, children respond to conversational allusions to the content of books; they act as question-answerers who have a knowledge of books.

(4) Beyond two years of age, children use their knowledge of what books do to legitimate their departures from "truth."

(5) Preschool children accept book and book-related activities as entertainment.

(6) Preschoolers announce their own factual and fictive narratives.

(7) When children are about three years old, adults discourage the highly interactive participative role in bookreading children have hitherto played and children listen and wait as an audience.
(Heath, 1982, pp. 52-53)

It is not difficult to see how this set of behaviors, learned in the middle-class home, transfers readily into the school setting, and how those children who are not exposed to the bedtime story routines would lack this important key to success upon entering school. Heath indicates that the Black community (Trackton) described in her study did not expose its children to books and book-related activities; instead, children are:

> . . . encapsuled in an almost totally human world, they are in the midst of constant human communication, verbal and non-verbal. They literally feel the body signals of shifts in emotion of those who hold them almost continuously; they are talked about and kept in the midst of talk about topics that range over any subject. (p. 64)

It is in this environment that Trackton children gradually develop analogical skills which enable them to fictionalize real events, use alliterative and metaphoric language, incorporate sound and body gestures which render each speech event a story-telling or poetic event capable of attracting the attention and approval of those who they see as audience. Thus, this set of behaviors, acquired in the home, is not valued in the school setting and the intrinsic and extrinsic values may be overlooked or openly rejected by middle-class teachers. Heath states that,

> . . . the children's abilities to metaphorically link two events or situations and to recreate scenes are not tapped in school; in fact, these abilities often cause difficulties (emphasis in the original), because they enable children to see parallels teachers did not intend, and, indeed, may not recognize until the children point them out. (p. 70)

Although Heath's study does not directly address the situation of the non-English or limited-English speaker, the situation of the Trackton community has significant parallels with that of poor, limited-English-speaking Hispanics in the United States. Like Trackton babies, many poor

Hispanic children "come home from the hospital to an environment which is almost entirely human. There are no cribs, car beds, or car seats, and only an occasional high chair or infant seat. . . . They (as they grow older) never request nor do they receive manipulative toys . . . literacy-based items, such as books or letter games. . . . There are no reading materials especially for children . . . and adults do not sit and read to children" (Heath, 1982).

Upon entering school, the Hispanic minority child faces the same difficulties confronted by the Black child; in addition, he/she must deal with the linguistic and other cultural differences which are used to further separate and alienate him/her from the mainstream society. Nevertheless, like Goodman, et al., Virginia G. Allen (1979) suggests that it is not too late to have limited-English speaking children exposed to a read aloud program at the elementary level. She states that, "In working with non-English speaking children, it is useful to plan a program that exposed them to books and language in a way they may not have experienced at home." The implication is that it is important to prepare a classroom environment which will help the learner to develop a set of behaviors related to reading which correspond to the expectations of the school. (This does not mean, however, that the school does not have the fundamental responsibility of reexamining and reevaluating its expectations in order to accommodate the legitimate needs of the limited-English speaker into the curriculum of the school.) Allen further suggests that if familiarity with stories is not achieved before exposure to "phonic lessons," "reading failure" will most assuredly be the end result for the limited-English speaker.

In summary, all the evidence seems to point overwhelmingly to the value of reading aloud to children. However, as was stated at the beginning of this section, the vast majority of the literature on this topic does not directly address those issues which relate to the second language learner. Where these issues form the central focus of discussion (Goodman, Goodman, and Flores, 1979; Allen, 1979; Chan, 1974; Baghban, 1972), they lack the empirical evidence needed to support the read aloud hypothesis. For example, Goodman, Goodman, and Flores' suggestion of reading aloud as a "method which can be used (to) facilitate a comprehension-centered program for biliterates" seems to be undocumented with research evidence, and in fact strongly resembles the suggestions which appeared in the Goodman and Watson (1977) description of a comprehension-focused program for monolingual speakers of English. In similar manner, Virginia G. Allen (1979) makes the same suggestion with what seems to be no empirical data to support it. Other studies, particularly those cited by McCormick (1981), upon examination show no direct relation to the non-English or limited-English speaker.

Even what is perhaps the most carefully designed study on the effects of reading aloud to preschoolers, Shirley Brice Heath's "What No Bedtime Story Means: Narrative Skills at Home and School" (1982), does not directly speak to the issues which affect the limited-English speaker in the United States. In view of the absence of data, and the continued suggestion for use of a method which has clearly not been fully investigated in terms of the limited-English speaker, it seems relevant that this study should seek answers to the questions:

(1) Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the reading comprehension in English of Spanish-speaking children?

(2) Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the attitudes toward reading of Spanish-speaking children?

In other words, can the non-English or limited-English speaking child who is past preschool age benefit from listening to stories read aloud in a classroom setting, in a language which is not his/her dominant one, by a teacher, who may or may not share the child's cultural and linguistic background?

Measuring Reading Attitudes

The importance of the role played by attitudes in the academic success of school children is an accepted axiom of modern educational thought (Epstein, 1980). Not only has the importance of attitudes been given widespread recognition in terms of general school achievement but most particularly has this been so in the area of reading.

> Since reading is the basis of learning most other school subjects, it seems logical to suppose that when the child finds reading a pleasurable experience, his positive attitudes toward reading will rapidly become more generalized to most other subjects. (Irene Athey in Singer and Ruddell, 1976, p. 366)

The cruciality of the ability to read is reiterated by Epstein (1980) who states that reading "plays a central role in a student's school life, especially as the basis of learning most academic subjects" (p. 6). The strong and logical connection which exists between the constructs of school success and reading (Fader, 1982), and between reading achievement and positive attitudes toward reading provides ample stimulus

for continued investigations in these important areas. This study attempts to examine an instructional technique's capability of increasing or in other ways affecting the reading attitudes of Hispanic limited-English-speaking children. Because reading is comprehension, this writer recognizes the importance of measuring students' reading comprehension; however, by itself, comprehension is not a sufficient measure of students' total reading achievement. It is also necessary to determine whether children take pleasure from reading as they do from other school and leisure time activities.

> The ultimate success of a reading program's effectiveness should be judged not solely on the basis of how well students learn to read but also in terms of whether they do in fact read. After all, what value is there in the ability to read if reading is seldom engaged in or if it is perceived as an unpleasant task? (Epstein, 1980, p. 5)

Although there has been a steady increase in the number of attitude measures (self-reports, observational, projective and unobtrusive measures) developed (Epstein, 1980), few of these instruments ever achieve publication. Consequently, each new instrument has attempted to adapt and/or refine existing tests, seldomly reaching more than a very limited audience. Several of the tests examined by this writer were characterized by their limited applicability to specific groups. For example, of the fifteen attitude measures included in Epstein's report, at least seven[1] require advanced reading skills with a possibility of at least

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[1]San Diego County Inventory of Reading Attitudes: Incomplete Sentence Projective Test, Boning and Boning; Reading Attitudes Questionnaire, J. B. Fiddler; 70-Item Attitude Instrument, L. D. Kennedy and R. S. Halinski; Mikulecky Behavioral Reading Attitude Measure, L. Mikulecky; Compensatory Reading Project: Attitude Toward Reading, Grades 4 & 6, D. A. Trismen, M. Waller, and G. Wilder; Rhody Secondary Reading Attitude Assessment, R. Tulluck-Rhody and J. E. Alexander.

three[2] others requiring advanced oral comprehension and/or reading skills. Other measures presented by Epstein seemed inappropriate for the sample taken in this study not only because of the complexity of language level but also because of their length--two of the tests consisted of over 70 items. Finally, some of the measures examined here by this writer (MacDonald, et al., 1966; Schotanus, 1967; Askov, 1969) appear to be both sexually and racially biased, requiring either male or female forms of the test or depicting only white males in the pictured activities.

Because of these limitations, these measures were rejected and a measure was developed that addressed the particular conditions and characteristics of the sample population of this study which is racially mixed, limited-English-speaking and of limited reading ability in English (see Appendix C).

To summarize, this chapter has presented a review of the literature in the three areas related to the focus of the study--reading and bilingualism, reading aloud, and measurement of reading attitudes. In general, the consensus appears to be that "careful, objective, and cogent research is rare." This has been shown to be most evident in the areas of reading aloud to bilingual learners and in the measurement of their attitudes toward reading.

The chapter which follows details the design of the study, including sample, treatment, and instruments.

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[2]Attitudes Toward Reading Scale: Pennsylvania Right to Read; Primary Reading Attitudes Index, A. Power; The Reading Attitudes Inventory, H. W. Sartain.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of reading aloud by the ESL teacher on the attitudes toward reading and the reading comprehension in English of limited-English speaking students. In order to obtain this information, the following research plan was developed.

Sample

The sample (see Table 1) consisted of fifty-three second- and third-grade Puerto Rican Spanish-English bilingual students enrolled in Transitional Bilingual Education (hereafter TBE)[1] classrooms in a public K-3 school in a city in Massachusetts. This number was arrived at after normal fluctuation in school enrollment figures required that eight of the sixty-one students originally included in the study be dropped. These intact groups were divided so that twenty-nine students formed the experimental group, and twenty-four formed the control group. Groups were classified as experimental or control on the basis of randomization procedures. During the semester in which the study was conducted, the school reported that the average enrollment for this second- and third-grade bilingual classroom was 40.5 and 45 students respectively. Twenty

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[1]Massachusetts state law provides for a transition (as opposed to maintenance) bilingual program which sets time limits to the amount of time a child may spend in a bilingual classroom before being mainstreamed.

students, or 49.3% of the TBE second grade, participated in the study; and thirty-three, or 73.3% of the total third grade TBE population of the school, took part. Table 1 contains the biographical information of the sample which may enable the reader to get a clearer picture of the students and the instructional setting of the study.

Two experienced ESL teachers provided the read aloud treatment after they attended the read aloud training sessions provided by the researcher. Although the teacher participants were volunteers, they were required to attend the read aloud training sessions before participation in this study (see Appendix A). The teachers also provided all ESL instruction to the students in the control groups. The distribution of the groups by teacher are indicated in Table 2. Subsequent discussions of group scores and group-teacher relations will be simplified with the use of this table.

Treatment

Before beginning the actual treatment, the children in both the experimental and control groups were pre-tested for both reading comprehension (Gates-MacGinitie, 1978), and reading attitudes using the instrument adapted for this study by the researcher. The treatment itself consisted of the reading aloud of selected children's stories by each teacher to two of her own groups of about five to eight children who formed part of the experimental group. The stories read were selected by the two teachers from various sources provided by the researcher during the training sessions. (A list of the materials used by the teachers is included in Appendix D.)

TABLE 1

BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

	Experimental (n=29)	Control (n=24)	TOTALS (E+C)
Sex:			
Male	17	10	27
Female	12	14	26
Grade:			
Second	11	9	20
Third	18	15	33
Age:			
Six	0	2	2
Seven	7	3	10
Eight	13	8	21
Nine	6	8	14
Ten	3	3	6
Reading Level in the Native Language (Spanish):			
Pre-Primer I	1	1	2
Pre-Primer II	1	0	1
First Grade I	2	3	5
First Grade II	8	6	14
Second Grade I	4	5	9
Second Grade II	0	3	3
Third Grade I	13	5	18
RLNL Unknown	0	1	1

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF GROUPS BY TEACHER

	Experimental		Control	
Teacher X	(E1)	(E2)	(C1)	(C2)
Teacher Y	(E3)	(E4)	(C3)	(C4)

Each experimental group was exposed to approximately thirty-six read aloud sessions; that is, the children were read to by the teachers at least three times per week for a period of twelve weeks. Time of day and other treatment factors were equated.

The control groups were involved in regular classroom activities during the time that the experimental groups participated in read aloud sessions. All other reading and ESL instruction remained identical for both experimental and control groups. It was projected that during the second half of the school year, after the completion of the study, the students in the control group would have an opportunity to experience the same treatment provided to the experimental group.

Instruments

The two major instruments used in this study consisted of a pictorial attitude toward reading scale adopted by this writer from existing scales and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level A. An observation checklist has also been adapted as an informal measure.

Attitude Towards Reading Scale (ATRS)

This scale was adapted from existing attitude scales by the researcher based on a one-question survey of school children between the ages of seven to fourteen who were asked to write (or dictate) a list of those activities which they enjoyed doing in or out of school. A series of thirteen drawings depicting the activities most frequently mentioned by the children were created specifically for this instrument by the Puerto Rican artist, Raul Torres. Drawings which focused on various

reading activities were included, though these are not representative of the responses of the children surveyed. The subjects in the experiment were asked to place the pictures in three categories:

(1) Things they like to do a lot;

(2) Things they are not too sure about; and

(3) Things they really do not like to do very much.

The scale is particularly appropriate for non-native speakers, non-readers, and for a wide range of ages since the test requires no reading skill. It also affords the opportunity to obtain data on rank ordering of the activities. In addition, the scale is designed to be culturally relevant since 80% of the children surveyed on the original question were Hispanic.

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (GMRT)

The Primary Level A test with vocabulary and comprehension subtests was used as the pre- and post-test measure of comprehension. The comprehension test measures the student's ability to read and understand whole sentences and paragraphs. The student is required to match a written item with one of four pictures. The vocabulary subtest consists of forty-five pictures which the student must match with an appropriate written word.

A careful examination of the literature on standardized comprehension tests resulted in the selection of this test. Practical and theoretical considerations rendered the test the most suitable choice for the purposes of this study. For example, other versions of the test were first published before. Continuous updating produced the 1978 edition

used here, making it the product of over thirty years of continuous research and revision. The test has undergone various tests of reliability and validity. "The alternate form reliabilities for the Vocabulary and Comprehension subtests range from .81 to .89. . . . The split-half reliabilities for Vocabulary and Comprehension range from .88 to .96" (Buros, 1968, p. 33).

Another consideration with motivated the selection of this particular test is the facility of administration of the test, which includes clear instructions and a practice page. In addition, the booklet format affords the students a manageable tool which does not require a separate answer sheet. Also, the test is hand scoreable, which eliminates the need to have tests mailed to a scoring center. Finally, in spite of the limitations of the three color format, the representation of members of racially and ethnically different groups is noteworthy.

Other Instruments

Zirkel and Greene (1976) and Epstein (1980) have suggested a multi-measure approach to attitude measurements; therefore, an observation checklist adapted by L. Brissey's discussion of "Observing and Recording Children's Responses to Literature Read Aloud" has been included in order to extract additional observers' information on the behavior of children who are read to (see Appendix E). In addition, the checklist provides information about the books read and the teachers' post-reading activities. Finally, the teachers' and this researcher's observations of the pre- and post-treatment behavior of the students have been included in the way of a summary of the experiences had during the study (see Appendix G).

Analysis of the Data

The analysis of the data consists of the examination and reporting of pre- and post-test scores, including the Means and Standard Deviations of test scores, and the results of tests of significance of the comprehension and pictorial activity-preference tests. Pre-test measures have been compared to determine if any significant difference existed between the control and the experimental groups at the outset of the study. Post-test measures have been compared to determine if any difference in these scores may be attributed to the read aloud treatment given to the experimental groups. Information from the Teacher's Observation Checklist, an informal measure, has been examined and presented in the discussion with accompanying tables.

In summary, Chapter III has presented the research plan used to guide the study. The size of the sample, although small, was demonstrated to adequately represent the bilingual population of the school since over 49% of the bilingual second grade and 73% of the bilingual third grade were included. Moreover, these figures represented well over 15% of the total second- and third-grade TBE population in the city.

In addition to a description of the sample, this chapter described the treatment that was administered and the instruments used to collect the data. Also, the types of analysis applied to the data were briefly discussed in preparation for the more in-depth chapter on data analysis that follows.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter includes the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data obtained from the various formal and informal measures administered to the students participating in the study. The focus of these analyses is on the relationship between the results of these measures and the research questions which guided the study. In this chapter, the analyses of the three secondary questions appear after that of the two major research questions even though the answers to the secondary questions were obtained before applying the analytical procedures to the two major research questions. This was necessary in order to facilitate the training of the participating teachers.

Research Question No. 1: Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the English reading comprehension of Spanish-speaking children?

The research data used to respond to this question was culled from the students' scores on the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test. A t-test was applied to the pre- and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups, and the results indicate that pre-treatment comprehension test and subtest scores of control and experimental groups were not significantly different at the levels indicated in parentheses on Table 3. The differences that were found to exist in the means of the vocabulary and over all comprehension (combined) scores at the pre-treatment stage were not found to be significant--1.92 (p=.061), .98 (p=.331). These results formed the basis for the continuation of the study, since the control and

TABLE 3

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PRE-TEST COMPREHENSION SCORES
OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Mean			Standard Deviation			2-Tail Probability (Degrees of Freedom = 51)		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score
Experimental Group (29)	20.48	15.20	35.68	9.67	9.77	18.95	1.92 (0.061)	-0.02 (0.987)	.98 (0.331)
Control Group (24)	15.66	15.25	30.91	8.35	8.63	15.83			

experimental groups were not found to be significantly different even though randomization procedures had been limited.

In response to Research Question No. 1, it was determined that the students who were read aloud to over a twelve-week period scored higher on the standardized reading comprehension test than the control groups who were not read aloud to over the same period of time. Mean scores for the experimental group were over four points higher on both the vocabulary and the comprehension parts of the test; consequently, the mean of the overall (combined) score of the experimental group was 8.71 points higher than that of the control group. Statistical analyses applied to these students revealed that these differences were not statistically significant at the levels indicated in Table 4.

However, a paired-t analysis of the data did reveal statistically significant differences in the pre- and post-treatment scores of the overall comprehension test and subtests of the experimental group at the levels indicated on Table 5. Although this analysis does not apply directly to the design of this particular study, it is worth noting the significantly higher post-treatment scores for two important reasons. First, because the pre- and post-test differences for the experimental group were greater than those of the control group (see Table 6 and related discussion), a positive trend is indicated. Second, the unequivocal statistical significance of these differences would be more than sufficient evidence in less rigorous experimental designs.

As was mentioned above, paired-t analysis of pre- and post-treatment scores of the comprehension test and subtest of the control group revealed

TABLE 4

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF POST-TEST COMPREHENSION SCORES
OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Mean			Standard Deviation			2-Tail Probability (Degrees of Freedom = 51)		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score
Experimental Group (29)	24.41	21.37	45.79	10.88	10.52	20.87	1.71 (0.092)	1.53 (0.133)	1.66 (0.103)
Control Group (24)	19.87	17.20	37.08	7.73	9.07	16.46			

TABLE 5

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PRE- AND POST-TEST READING COMPREHENSION SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP*

	Mean			Standard Deviation			2-Tail Probability (Degrees of Freedom = 28)		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score
Pre-Test	20.48	15.20	35.68	9.67	9.77	18.95	3.86 (0.001)	5.19 (0.000)	5.54 (0.000)
Post-Test	24.41	21.37	45.68	10.88	10.52	20.87			

*N = 29

TABLE 6

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PRE- AND POST-TEST READING COMPREHENSION SCORES OF CONTROL GROUP*

	Mean			Standard Deviation			2-Tail Probability (Degrees of Freedom = 23)		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score
Pre-Test	15.66	15.25	30.91	8.35	8.63	15.83	4.30 (0.000)	1.84 (0.079)	4.08 (0.000)
Post-Test	19.87	17.20	37.08	7.73	9.07	16.46			

*N = 24

improved scores (at the levels of significance indicated in Table 6), on the vocabulary subtest and on the total (combined) comprehension measure. Once again, although these results do not respond to the research design of this study, it is important to reiterate that the differences between pre- and post-comprehension scores of the experimental group revealed significant increases on all three test component measures: 3.86 ($p=.001$), 5.19 ($p<.001$), 5.54 ($p<.001$), whereas those of the control group did so in only two categories. This latter group did not register significant increases in the comprehension subtest, as it also did not obtain as large an increase in post-treatment measure of overall comprehension. Only in the post-treatment measures of vocabulary did the control group score slightly higher increases than did the experimental group.

Further examination of the data revealed the influence of the results of an important element--"the uncontrolled instructor variable." In seeking an explanation for the results of the group t-analysis, a regression analysis determined that the teacher variable had contributed to the results more significantly than any other variable, such as group, age, sex, or grade. Differences in the pre-test comprehension scores were determined highly significant on all three test component measures: 3.97, 4.78, 4.68, vocabulary, comprehension, and combined scores respectively. These results reveal that students who were enrolled in Teacher X's classes, regardless of whether they were assigned to experimental or control groups, scored significantly higher on the pre-treatment measures of comprehension than those students enrolled in Teacher Y's classes (see Table 7).

TABLE 7

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PRE-TEST COMPREHENSION SCORES
OF TEACHER X AND TEACHER Y PUPILS

	Mean			Standard Deviation			2-Tail Probability (Degrees of Freedom = 51)		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score
Teacher X	22.88	20.38	43.26	9.39	8.05	16.47	3.97 (0.000)	4.78 (0.000)	4.68 (0.000)
Teacher Y	13.88	10.25	24.14	6.95	7.37	13.15			

Differences in the post-test comprehension scores of the students enrolled with Teachers X and Y were determined to be similarly significant (p=.001) on all three test component measures--3.85, 3.44, 3.75. Thus, students enrolled with Teacher X scored higher than those enrolled with Teacher Y on both pre- and post-test scores. These differences were not revealed at the pre-treatment stage because only the differences between the experimental and control groups were measured and these were not found to be significant (see Table 8).

Research Question No. 2: Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the overall attitudes toward reading of Spanish-speaking children?

The results of the t-test analysis applied to students' scores on the ATRS are presented in Table 9. This table indicates that students' attitudes as measured by the scale did not change significantly positively or negatively for either group.

Frequencies for Picture 3 (Reading with Adult) on the ATRS at the pre-treatment stage show that 69% of the experimental group and 58.3% of the control group indicated that they liked the activity (see Table 10). However, only 6.8% of the experimental group actually selected Reading with Adult as a preferred activity as opposed to 20.8% of the control group. At the post-treatment stage, 65.5% of the experimental group and 70.8% of the control group indicated that they liked the activity. The experimental group showed a slight decrease from pre-treatment responses; however, the number of students who selected it as a preferred activity rose to 17.2%. The control group showed a 12.5% increase in the number of students who expressed a liking for the activity and a 16.7% increase

TABLE 8

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF POST-TEST COMPREHENSION SCORES
OF TEACHER X AND TEACHER Y PUPILS

	Mean			Standard Deviation			2-Tail Probability (Degrees of Freedom = 51)		
	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score	Vocabulary	Comprehension	Combined Score
Teacher X	27.03	23.88	50.92	9.52	10.21	19.12	3.85 (0.000)	3.94 (0.001)	3.75 (0.000)
Teacher Y	17.85	15.25	33.11	7.78	7.92	15.29			

TABLE 9

T-TEST ANALYSIS OF PRE- AND POST-TEST READING ATTITUDE SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Experimental (n=29; df=28)				Control (n=24; df-23)			
	x	sd	t	p	x	sd	t	p
Picture 3:								
Pre-Test	2.44	.87	.18	.856 (ns)	2.41	.77	1.10	.285 (ns)
Post-Test	2.48	.78			2.62	.64		
Picture 5:								
Pre-Test	2.62	.72	.85 (ns)	.403	2.20	.93	1.43	.166 (ns)
Post-Test	2.48	.78			2.50	.83		
Picture 8:								
Pre-Test	2.41	.78	.96	.345 (ns)	2.12	.90	.75	.461 (ns)
Post-Test	2.24	.83			2.29	.85		
Picture 10:								
Pre-Test	2.62	.67	.65	.522 (ns)	2.16	.91	.00	1.000
Post-Test	2.51	.73			2.15	.81		

TABLE 10

ATTITUDE TOWARD READING SCALE
PICTURE 3 (READING WITH ADULT)

Responses	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Experimental (N=29)		
Don't Like to Do	2 (24.1%)	5 (17.2%)
Undecided	2 (6.9%)	5 (17.2%)
Like to Do	20 (69.0%)	19 (65.5%)
Control (N=24)		
Don't Like to Do	4 (16.7%)	2 (8.3%)
Undecided	6 (25.0%)	5 (20.8%)
Like to Do	14 (58.3%)	17 (70.8%)

in the number of students who selected it as a preferred activity. These increases in the control group may have come about because some members of the control group had knowledge of the treatment being received by the students in the experimental group; consequently, some of the control group students expressed curiosity about the read aloud sessions and the desire to be included.

Interestingly, the number of students in both the experimental and control groups who had indicated at the pre-treatment stage that they actually did not like the activity decreased.

Frequencies for Picture 5 (Reading Aloud with Picture Book) on the ATRS at the pre-treatment stage show that 75.9% of the experimental group and 54.2% of the control group indicated that they liked the activity (see Table 11). Again, 6.8% of the experimental group selected Reading Alone with a Picture Book as a preferred activity. In the control group, 8.3% selected the activity as a preferred one. Post-treatment responses indicate that 65.5% of the experimental and 70.8% of the control group expressed they liked the activity. Once again, the increase in the control groups' liking for the activity may be due to the desire some of them expressed to have access to the books being read to the experimental group. The number of students who selected the activity as a preferred one at the post-treatment stage remained unchanged for both the experimental and the control groups.

Frequencies for Picture 8 (Group Reading) on the ATRS at the pre-treatment stage show that 58.6% of the experimental group indicated that they liked the activity (see Table 12). At the post-treatment stage,

TABLE 11

ATTITUDE TOWARD READING SCALE
PICTURE 5 (READING ALONE WITH PICTURE BOOK)

Responses	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Experimental (N=29)		
Don't Like to Do	4 (13.8%)	5 (17.2%)
Undecided	3 (10.3%)	5 (17.2%)
Like to Do	22 (75.9%)	19 (65.5%)
Control (N=24)		
Don't Like to Do	8 (33.3%)	5 (20.8%)
Undecided	3 (12.5%)	2 (8.3%)
Like to Do	13 (54.2%)	17 (70.8%)

TABLE 12

ATTITUDE TOWARD READING SCALE
PICTURE 8 (GROUP READING)

Responses	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Experimental (N=29)		
Don't Like to Do	5 (17.2%)	7 (24.1%)
Undecided	7 (24.1%)	8 (27.6%)
Like to Do	17 (58.6%)	14 (38.3%)
Control (N=24)		
Don't Like to Do	8 (33.3%)	6 (25.0%)
Undecided	5 (20.8%)	5 (20.8%)
Like to Do	11 (45.8%)	13 (54.2%)

this number decreased to 38.3%. This correlates to the decrease from 10.3% to 6.8% in the number of students who picked the activity as a preferred one. The control group on the other hand showed an increase from 45.8% to 54.2% in the number of students who indicated that they liked the activity; however, the number of students in this group who indicated it was a preferred activity remained unchanged.

Frequencies for Picture 10 (Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book) on the ATRS at the post-treatment stage indicate that in both the experimental and control groups there was a decrease in the number of students who expressed a liking for the activity (see Table 13). The experimental group went from 72.4% to 65.0% and the control group moved from 50.0% to 41.7%. On the selection of preferred activities, the experimental group moved from 6.8% to 3.4% and the control group moved from 8.3% to 0.0%.

Tables 14 and 15 show the preferred activities of the students. In the experimental group, all reading activities noticeably fall into the lower half of the list at the pre- and post-treatment stages. In the control group (Table 15), at least one reading activity--Reading with an Adult--falls into the upper half of the list and at the post-treatment stage is situated within the top four activities with 37.5% of the students selecting the activity as a preferred one. It is impossible to accurately explain why the control group experienced such an apparent change in attitude toward this activity. It can only be speculated, as was mentioned earlier, that because some of them knew about the read aloud sessions, they were motivated by their curiosity.

TABLE 13

ATTITUDE TOWARD READING SCALE
PICTURE 10 (READING ALONE WITH NON-PICTURE BOOK)

Responses	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Experimental (N=29)		
Don't Like to Do	3 (10.3%)	4 (13.8%)
Undecided	5 (17.2%)	6 (20.7%)
Like to Do	21 (72.4%)	19 (65.5%)
Control (N=24)		
Don't Like to Do	8 (33.3%)	6 (25.0%)
Undecided	4 (16.7%)	8 (33.3%)
Like to Do	12 (50.0%)	10 (41.7%)

TABLE 14

MOST PREFERRED ACTIVITIES OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Activities in Order of Presentation	Pre-Treatment Preferences	Post-Treatment Preferences
1. Bicycle Riding	Swimming (17)	Swimming (19)
2. Rollerskating	Bicycle Riding (16)	Bicycle Riding (15)
3. Reading with Adult	Painting/Drawing (12)	Painting/Drawing (11)
4. Watching Television	Jumping Rope (9)	Rollerskating (9)
5. Reading Alone with Picture Book	Rollerskating (8)	Watching Television (8)
6. Painting/Drawing	Watching Television (7)	Playing Baseball (8)
7. Swimming	Playing Baseball (7)	Reading with Adult (5)
8. Reading in a Group	Reading in a Group (3)	Jumping Rope (5)
9. Running/Jogging	Reading with an Adult (2)	Reading Alone with Picture Book (2)
10. Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book	Reading Alone with Picture Book (2)	Reading in a Group (2)
11. Playing Baseball	Running/Jogging (2)	Running/Jogging (2)
12. Jumping Rope	Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book (2)	Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book (1)

Note: Those items that obtained tied scores on the number of times mentioned as preferred activities are listed in the order in which they were presented to the students.

TABLE 15

MOST PREFERRED ACTIVITIES OF CONTROL GROUP

Activities in Order of Presentation	Pre-Treatment Preferences	Post-Treatment Preferences
1. Bicycle Riding	Swimming (15)	Swimming (18)
2. Rollerskating	Rollerskating (12)	Bicycle Riding (10)
3. Reading with Adult	Bicycle Riding (10)	Rollerskating (9)
4. Watching Television	Painting/Drawing (7)	Reading with Adult (9)
5. Reading Alone with Picture Book	Playing Baseball (7)	Painting/Drawing (6)
6. Painting/Drawing	Reading with an Adult (5)	Playing Baseball (6)
7. Swimming	Watching Television (5)	Jumping Rope (5)
8. Reading to a Group	Jumping Rope (5)	Running/Jogging (4)
9. Running/Jogging	Running/Jogging (2)	Watching Television (3)
10. Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book	Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book (2)	Reading Alone with Picture Book (1)
11. Playing Baseball	Reading Alone with Picture Book (1)	Reading in a Group (1)
12. Jumping Rope	Reading in a Group (1)	Reading Alone with Non-Picture Book (0)

Note: Those items that obtained tied scores on the number of times mentioned as preferred activities are listed in the order in which they were presented to the students.

Another valuable source of data was the Teacher's Question and Observation Guide (see Appendix E) adapted from L. Brissey's Checklist. The list provided the teachers a guide for observing and recording the behavior of the students before, during, and after each reading. In addition, the teachers used the form to record the questions used at each reading session.

In the analysis of the Teacher Observation Checklist that follows, each checklist category--Pupil Responses to Text, Pupil Responses to Story Structure, Non-Verbal Responses, Pupil Responses to Physical Features of the Book, Pupil Personal Responses to the Story, and Pupil Supplies (the words) "The End"--has been examined in terms of total number of responses per category rather than in terms of progress or change registered during the study (see Table 16). In fact, it became very clear that changes that the students experienced invariably responded to the particular story being read. For example, in the E1 group, the story with the highest number of pupil responses (25) was John Steptoe's "My Special Best Words," which was read after six and one-half weeks into the program. W. D. Myer's "The Dragon Takes A Wife" was second with twenty-one responses after eight weeks into the program, and third was Mercer Mayer's "Liza Lou and the Yellow Belly Swamp," which had nineteen responses after only five and one-half weeks into the program. Students in this group also reacted very favorably to two other stories, "The Dancers" by W. D. Myers, eighteen responses after just three weeks, and "The Boy Who Didn't Believe in Spring" with fifteen responses recorded after only two weeks into the program! This pattern is repeated in all

TABLE 16

SUMMARY OF TEACHER'S OBSERVATION CHECKLIST
(SEE APPENDIX E)

	Before Reading	During Reading	After Reading	TOTAL
1. Pupil Response to Text	15	171	105	291
2. Pupil Responses to Story Structure	8	162	112	282
3. Pupil Non-Verbal Responses	4	98	33	135
4. Pupil Response to Physical Features of the Book	10	84	48	142
5. Pupil Personal Response to the Story	1	39	109	149
6. Pupil Supplies "The End"	0	1	27	28
TOTAL:	38	555	407	1,027

four experimental groups which clearly suggests that students reacted favorably to specific stories regardless of how long the program had been in progress. For example, in the E2 group, there was a similar high interest in the John Steptoe story, also read after six and one-half weeks into the program; but the students were equally enthusiastic about "The Dragon Takes A Wife," followed by "The Boy Who Didn't Believe in Spring." It should be noted that the high response stories all have Black protagonists, and that of the five selections, three take place in the city settings the students could identify with.

In the E3 and E4 groups, read to by Teacher Y, student responses were notably fewer than in E1 and E2, and the high interest stories were somewhat different from those of the E1 and E2 groups; nevertheless, the story with the highest response was still "My Special Best Words," with eleven and nine responses recorded for E3 and E4 groups respectively. The E3 group also responded with enthusiasm (ten responses each) to "The Crane Wife," and "The Maggie B." The E4 group also responded to "The Crane Wife" and "The Maggie B" with equal enthusiasm (seven responses to each one).

In general, groups showed interest in mystery and fantasy tales, particularly Halloween and ghost stories, such as "Amanda and the Giggling Ghosts" and "The Mystery of the Flying Pumpkin."

Further examination of the students' responses as recorded on the Checklist also revealed that 28% of these fell into the category of "Pupil Responses to Text," followed by "Pupil Responses to Story Structure," which included 27% of all responses. Although there was a

great deal of "activity" going on during the readings, it could not be directly regarded as direct response to the read aloud session; therefore, with the exception of the last category, "Pupil Supplies 'The End,'" the category with the least number of responses was "Pupil Non-Verbal Responses" with only 13% of the total recorded.

In addition, it is also important to note that most responses (54%) came during the actual reading of the selections as compared to before the readings (only 3.7%) or after the readings when 39.6% of the responses were recorded. These results correlated highly with the observations of differences in the behavior of monolingual and bilingual children during read aloud sessions prior to the initiation of this study.

In conclusion, the Checklist provided an opportunity to look at not only the frequency of responses, but also the nature of students' responses to oral readings. Each spontaneous response recorded by the readers reflects the students' encounters with reading as a relevant, enjoyable activity in which they can actively participate in a meaningful way.

Chapter IV has presented an analysis of the results of the study. These have shown that although some results were not statistically significant, differences in pre- and post-test scores seem to indicate a positive trend regarding the effects of reading aloud on the reading ability of Spanish-speaking children. Similar analyses applied to the results of the attitude measure (ATRS) do not appear to support the same findings in this area. Nevertheless, the descriptive analysis used to

examine the Teacher's Observation Checklist does point to very positive student activity regarding book reading and student preferences.

Chapter V follows with a summary of the study, the conclusion, and the recommendations for applications of the findings, improvement of the study, and possible further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is threefold. First, it attempts to provide a summary of the steps taken during the study. Second, it provides a synopsis of the results or findings of the study; and third, it offers some recommendations based on the findings.

Summary

Chapter I provided the historical background of teaching methods in English as a Second Language. It demonstrated the widespread practice of applying teaching methods and techniques developed for first language learners to second language learners. It was shown that this questionable practice resulted in the misuse of foreign language teaching techniques in the second language classroom, and the (particularly pertinent to the study) equally objectionable application of first language reading instruction techniques to the second language learner. In each case, it was demonstrated that the overwhelming differences that exist between subjects and conditions had been given little consideration. The failure of these practices was evidenced by the findings of national studies, which indicate the chronic nature of the lag between the reading levels of native and non-native speakers of English.

From among the many reading instruction techniques used with second language, reading aloud was selected for examination in this study.

Two major research questions were posed:

1. Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the English reading comprehension of Spanish-speaking children?

2. Does teachers' oral reading in English affect the overall attitudes toward reading of Spanish-speaking children?

In order to carry out the study, it was first necessary to examine three additional questions:

1. Are there differences between the read aloud techniques used with native English-speakers and those used with non-native speakers?

2. Is the selection of the read-aloud materials the same for both native and non-native populations?

3. If the selection of read-aloud materials is different for non-native speakers, what selection criteria should be applied?

The stated purpose of the study was to examine the effects of a reading instruction technique which could provide second language learners with immediate and purposeful contact with the written forms of language without exposing them to the rigors and frustration associated with traditional reading instruction.

Chapter II undertook a review of the related literature in three specific areas: reading and bilingualism, reading aloud, and reading attitudes. The first area provided the general background of the fields of reading and bilingualism. The second area covered the state-of-the-art of reading aloud to children as an instructional technique. The third area examined was the literature which deals with (a) the role played by attitudes in the reading process, and (b) the measurement of attitudes toward reading.

The exploration of these three areas provided important information which pointed out that (a) empirical data on the reading processes of bilinguals is rare, (b) much of the research on reading aloud relates to the first language, and (c) even though attitudes have been acknowledged an important role in the reading process, their measurement has continued to evade standardization; consequently, there are as many new measures as there are researchers and investigations.

Chapter III provided an analysis of the methodology used by these researchers to obtain the answers to the research questions posed in the first chapter. The chapter examined the sample, the treatment applied to the groups, and the instruments used.

Chapter IV presented the results of the qualitative and quantitative analyses applied to the data. A brief summary of the findings and conclusions follows.

Findings and Conclusions

The three minor research questions whose answers were needed prior to the initiation of the study produced the following results:

(1) Observations of both bilingual and English monolingual classrooms provided evidence indicating that read aloud techniques were similar in both groups at the early elementary level. First through third grade teachers who were observed prior to the study relied heavily on demonstration of illustrations, facial, hand, and body gestures, and dramatic variation of speech forms.

ESL teachers at this level also used similar techniques. At the fourth through sixth grade levels, English monolingual teachers were using materials which contained fewer illustrations; and fewer gestures and dramatic use of voice were observed. Bilingual classroom teachers and ESL teachers at this level used the read aloud activity as a "fill-in" and were, therefore, not observed with the same frequency as the English monolingual teachers.

(2) It became evident from the questionnaire administered to both bilingual and English monolingual teachers that the materials selected by both these groups show a certain amount of overlapping (see Appendix F). However, monolingual English teachers offered more titles of recent children's books relying less on classical titles than bilingual teachers. In addition, bilingual classroom teachers suggested selections containing more illustrated works (picture books) than the monolingual group.

(3) Any selection criteria formulated from the above findings would require that books containing an abundance of illustrations, covering a variety of up-to-date topics particularly relevant to the conditions, needs, and interests of the ESL learner, and which also provide opportunities to look into the world of fantasy

be considered most appropriate for this special group of learners. Linguistic level was not a primary selection criteria since teachers did not make suggestions according to level taught, but rather on the basis of the perceived quality of the selections. (Students' reactions to individual stories regardless of difficulty support this finding.)

After these three questions were answered, the list of reading materials compiled, and the teacher training sessions completed, pre-tests were administered and the treatment was begun.

The analyses of the data compiled during the study produced the following results:

(a) In relation to the first major research question, it was found that students in the experimental group scored higher on the standardized reading tests than the control group. These results undoubtedly establish a positive trend favoring the use of read aloud with the non-English speaking regardless of linguistic level. The differences, although they were found not to be statistically significant, seem to support an affirmative response to the first research question.

(b) A paired-t analysis of the results of the experimental group revealed significant differences in the pre- and post-treatment scores. This evidence lends further

support for an affirmative response to the first question.

(c) Grouped-t analysis of the ATRS scores of control and experimental groups showed no difference between pre- and post-scores.

(d) A ranking of the students' preferred activities on the ATRS revealed that the reading activities of the experimental group all fell in the lower half of the list of both the pre- and post-treatment stages, whereas the control group ranked at least one reading activity in the upper half at the pre-treatment stage, with improved rank position at the post-treatment.

(e) The students' interest in books seemed to be influenced mainly by the individual selections read to them. Regardless of the time that had elapsed in the project, students wanted stories reread to them which were particularly meaningful, enjoyable, and relevant to their experiences.

These findings, though statistically inconclusive in relation to the particular design of this study, do show a very positive trend not only in the area of comprehension but also in the area of attitudes. Other positive outcomes are discussed below.

Recommendations

The recommendations presented in this section focus on three areas: (a) the incorporation of the read aloud technique into the ESL curriculum,

and other areas of a bilingual program, (b) the improvement of the present study, and (c) the suggestions for further research.

The Incorporation of the Read Aloud Technique into the ESL Curriculum

Despite current emphasis on concrete data, it is this researcher's belief that the presence or absence of statistically significant findings should not be the only determining factor in defining the overall success of a particular instructional technique. Even small increases in positive behavior should be looked upon as indicators of progress without losing sight of the fact that numbers by their very nature cannot always be made to reflect the excitement of students entering a classroom filled with books whose content they know and can talk about, nor can numbers be said to accurately reflect the verbalization of ideas, such as "Which you like?" or "This, my favorite," or "Read this again." The results of statistical analyses cannot demonstrate the rapport or the increased interaction between student and teacher. All of these behaviors were observed by the teachers involved and by the researcher. Each of these behaviors seem to be a valid reason for including a well-planned read aloud program into the ESL curriculum. Read aloud gives the students interesting and meaningful topics of discussion. It thus foments the establishment of a bond among the students and most particularly between the teacher/reader and the student.

Fifteen minutes a day at regular frequent intervals over an extended period of time with appropriately selected materials and trained readers can be worked into not only the ESL classroom, but also the bilingual classroom or the library in the form of a story hour.

This study has shown that a regularly programmed read aloud period does not detract from the regular curriculum but does in fact in the long run provide experiences of equal or greater value in all respects.

Improvement of the Present Study

In any study which requires the utilization of human subjects, there arise certain uncontrollable factors which can and often do affect the results of an investigation.

An important factor in the study was the teacher/reader variable. The findings clearly indicate that the selection and training of the teachers/readers should be a priority in the initial stages of the study. Also, more teachers and students should be included so that participants who are unable to fulfill the requirements of the study may be dropped without affecting the validity of the investigation.

A second closely related factor is the randomization of the sample. The students selected were those who had already been assigned to the teachers who volunteered for the project. The utilization of such pre-existing groups may result in effects that may be subject to "major sources of bias." Therefore, it is of the utmost importance to obtain randomly selected groups for studies of this nature.

A third factor to be considered for the improvement of the study is the instruments used. The ATRS was developed in response to the limitations found in many other existing instruments. It was designed to be multicultural, sexually non-biased, and applicable to non-literate learners. All of this was successfully achieved. In addition, the construct validity of the instrument was based on similar measures from

which the ATRS was adapted. Nevertheless, test-retest scores were inconclusive and suggest that the test should be submitted to further field testing and revision.

Suggestions for Further Research

In general terms, the review of the literature has clearly pointed to the need for further study of the reading processes of bilingual learners. It is evident that in order to make applications of other first language teaching techniques to the second language learner, a more precise analysis of the specific similarities and differences between first- and second-language readers must be made. In this respect, each language instruction technique should be examined and evaluated individually in terms of the particular needs and characteristics of the students exposed to the technique. The same careful analysis should be carried out with those techniques which were originally developed for foreign language learners.

In the specific area of reading aloud, subsequent studies should place particular emphasis on the examination of the effects of read aloud on non-English speaking populations older and younger than those in the current investigation. College level and other adult learner groups would be particularly worthwhile examining. In addition, it would be especially interesting to examine the relationship between reading aloud and teachers' attitudes toward their students. The apparent effect of bonding between teacher/reader and students should be examined in depth. Finally, for the purpose of establishing the positive results of this study in statistically significant numbers, replication should only be

undertaken with the improvements suggested in the previous section:

(a) More care should be taken in the selection of the teachers; teachers with health or other problems which might affect results should not be included.

(b) More intensive assessment procedures should be incorporated into the training sessions to ensure that all teachers use similar techniques at the reading sessions.

(c) More teachers and students should be used since the size of the sample affects the significance of the results.

(d) Randomization of the sample should be a priority in order to avoid the use of pre-existing groups which can also affect results negatively.

(e) Further field testing of instruments used should figure as a primary objective.

This chapter has summarized (1) the steps followed throughout the investigation, (2) the findings and conclusions, and (3) the recommendations for (a) incorporating the technique into the ESL and bilingual curricula, (b) improving the present study, and (c) carrying out further research.

In conclusion, the inherent value of this investigation is based on four of its findings. First, it has pointed out the significant weaknesses in the current methods of adopting pedagogical approaches and techniques for second language learners. Second, it has examined one individual technique which has been shown to stimulate positive behavior

in teachers and learners of English as a second language. Third, it has been made evident that students' interest in books does not necessarily increase with the length of time of the exposure to books, but rather with those qualities of the books which make them particularly meaningful, enjoyable, and relevant to the child's experiences.

Finally, the technique has been shown to have applications not only in the ESL classroom but also in the bilingual classroom and in other related areas of the second language learner's educational program. Within the proposal for change embodied in these four important findings lies the significance of this study.

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APPENDIX A:

TEACHER TRAINING UNIT

TEACHER TRAINING UNIT

Introduction

This unit was prepared for the purpose of providing those ESL teachers who volunteered their time to this project with a common background knowledge of (a) the reading process, (b) the concept of Read Aloud and its possible applications to second language learning, (c) the specific methods and techniques appropriate to Reading Aloud in a second language environment, and (d) the procedural steps which the teachers would need in order to participate in this study.

The participating teachers were thus brought together for the purposes of explanation, clarification and discussion, and training with the expectation the possibility of exposing the students to unequal treatment would thereby be diminished.

TEACHER TRAINING UNIT

Subject: Reading in a Second Language

Theme: Reading Aloud in the Second Language Reading Program--A Workshop

Target Group: ESL Teachers and Teacher-Trainees

Language of Instruction: English

Duration: Two three-hour sessions

General Aims:

1. To gain insights into the reading process in a second language.
2. To develop an awareness of the importance of reading aloud for English as a second language learners.
3. To learn specific methods and techniques of reading aloud to second language learners.

Specific Objectives:

1. After discussing the reading process in an open forum, the participants will be able to synthesize their ideas into a working definition of the reading process.
2. After viewing a videotape on the topic of "reading aloud," the participants will become aware of the importance of the "reading aloud" component in monolingual and bilingual reading programs.
3. After reading and discussing recent articles in journals on the topics listed below, the participants will

develop appropriate selection criteria for read aloud materials, specifically the following:

a) cultural relevancy

b) linguistic appropriateness

c) stereotyping

d) racism

e) sexism

4. After being involved in role-playing and other practice activities, the participants will be able to describe appropriate Read Aloud techniques to be used with limited- or non-English speaking learners.
5. After practicing and completing all the activities listed below, the participants will be able to identify and demonstrate appropriate read aloud skills.
6. After completing the workshop, the participants will introduce and carry out the Read Aloud program following the specific guidelines required by the experimental project.

Activities:

The participants will:

1. Listen to lectures on the reading process.
2. Participate in a discussion of the following key issues:

   a) What is reading? How can we define the process?

   b) Do special problems exist in reading in a second language?

c) What is the current status of reading-in-a-second-language instruction?

3. View excerpts from the videotapes of Jim Trelease's (Amherst, 2/2/83) lecture on reading aloud.

4. Discuss existing evidence that supports the practice of reading aloud to school children.

5. Observe a videotape of a Read-Aloud situation, to be followed by a group discussion of the following topics:

   a) How do the following elements contribute to the Read-Aloud experience:

      - Voice
      - Pitch
      - Pronunciation
      - Intonation
      - Physical Gestures

   b) How do the physical aspects of the book being read contribute to the Read-Aloud experience?

   c) What special considerations must be taken into account when reading aloud to limited- or non-English speaking children?

      - Cultural Variables (e.g., conceptual and experiential differences, student reactions, seating arrangements, etc.)
      - Linguistic Variables (e.g., syntactic and semantic differences, etc.)

d) What part does translation play in reading aloud to limited- or non-English speaking children?

6. Examine examples of children's literature to determine and apply appropriate selection criteria.
7. Read aloud in small groups, followed by discussion and analysis of strengths and weaknesses by group members.
8. Outline ways to include Reading Aloud experiences into the ESL curriculum.
9. Design the plan of action that will be followed for the experiment.

Materials:

1. A varied selection of children's books. (See Appendix D.)
2. Videotape of Jim Trelease's lecture, and of a Read Aloud situation.
3. Television and videotape player.
4. Furniture (chairs and mats) appropriate for a Reading Aloud situation.

Resources:

1. Media services
2. Library Services

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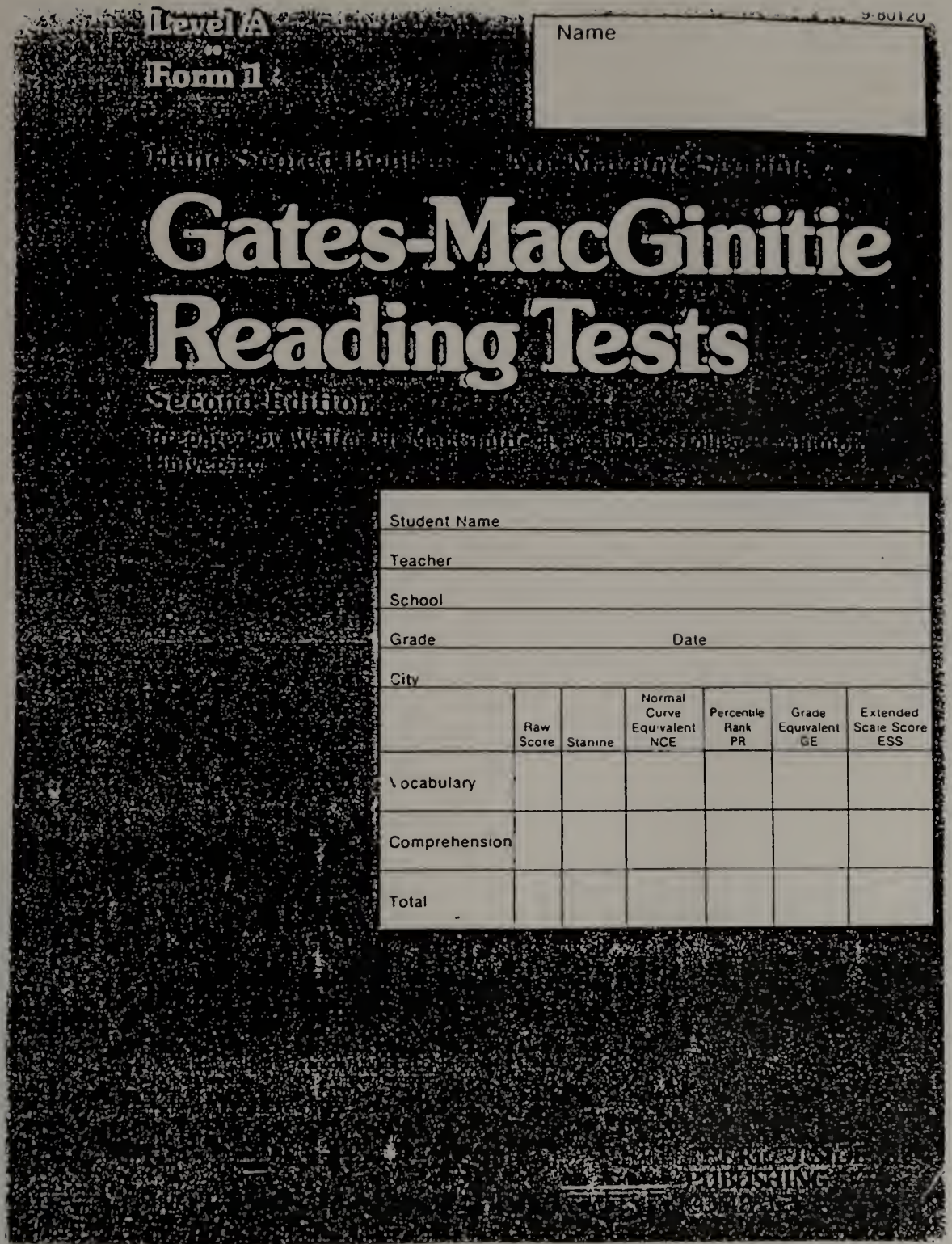
APPENDIX B:

GATES-MacGINITIE READING TESTS



Level A
Form 1

Name

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests

Second Edition

	Raw Score	Stanine	Normal Curve Equivalent NCE	Percentile Rank PR	Grade Equivalent GE	Extended Scale Score ESS
Vocabulary						
Comprehension						
Total						

Student Name
Teacher
School
Grade Date
City

1

dunk ⬭
jump ⬭
dump ⬭
junk ⬭

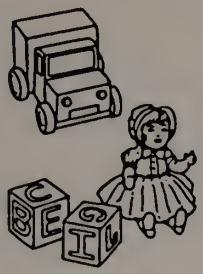
2

bark ⬭
mark ⬭
park ⬭
dark ⬭

3

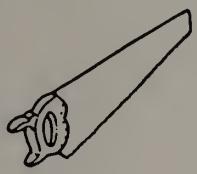
bake ⬭
broke ⬭
beak ⬭
book ⬭

4



toss ⬭
tows ⬭
toys ⬭
try ⬭

5



saw ⬭
say ⬭
raw ⬭
was ⬭

6

test ⬭
tempt ⬭
tent ⬭
term ⬭

7

grove ⬭
prove ⬭
shove ⬭
glove ⬭

8

sheet ⬭
sleet ⬭
sweet ⬭
street ⬭

9

cone ⬭
come ⬭
same ⬭
some ⬭

10

legs ⬭
eggs ⬭
begs ⬭
logs ⬭

11

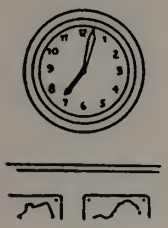
paw ⬭
pay ⬭
pry ⬭
pie ⬭

12

sign ⬭
sin ⬭
sing ⬭
sink ⬭

GO ON

13



cluck
clock
clack
click

14

wheel
well
heel
while

15

grapes
gapes
gropes
drapes

16

force
fox
forks
forth

17

sick
tick
slick
stick

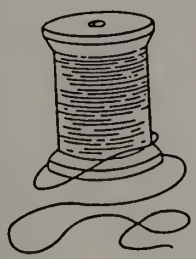
18

rid
rude
ride
red

19

thing
think
thin
thick

20



spread
dread
shred
thread

21

slide
side
spied
stride

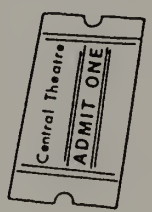
22

call
cool
colt
calf

23

dearest
dent
dentist
artist

24



trinket
ticket
triplet
thicket

GO ON

25

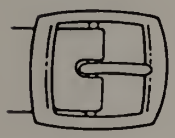
- pole
- pool
- pale
- pile

26

- huge
- huff
- hub
- hug

27

- pink
- picnic
- pickle
- pinch

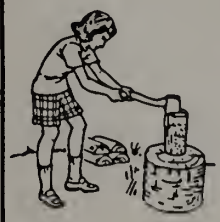


28

- buckle
- bucking
- bucked
- bucket

29

- pike
- peck
- peak
- pick



30

- shop
- crop
- chop
- stop

31

- notch
- rock
- hock
- knock

32

- present
- president
- persist
- percent

33

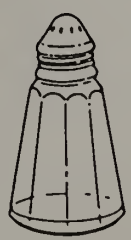
- offense
- office
- offers
- officer

34

- needs
- needles
- needled
- needless

35

- handy
- handful
- handsome
- handball



36

- shaky
- shack
- shaker
- shakily

GO ON

37

drip ⬭
droop ⬭
prop ⬭
drop ⬭

38

frown ⬭
grown ⬭
flown ⬭
brown ⬭

39

could ⬭
clod ⬭
cloud ⬭
aloud ⬭

40

sheaf ⬭
flesh ⬭
shelf ⬭
self ⬭

41

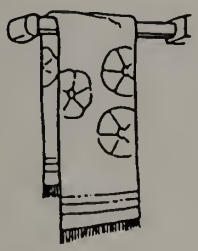
tall ⬭
tack ⬭
talk ⬭
take ⬭

42

reap ⬭
wrap ⬭
trap ⬭
warp ⬭

43

past ⬭
pest ⬭
paste ⬭
post ⬭



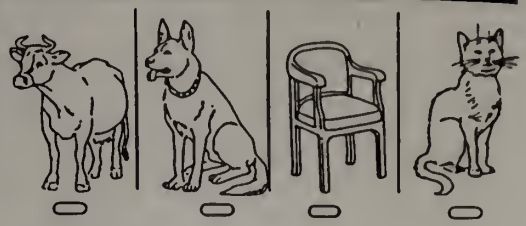
44

trowel ⬭
toll ⬭
toil ⬭
towel ⬭

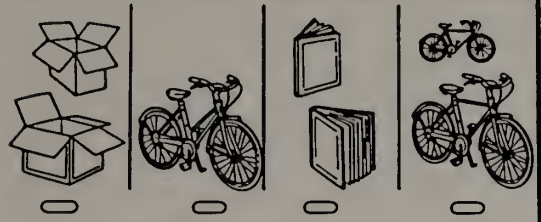
45

pant ⬭
pint ⬭
point ⬭
paint ⬭

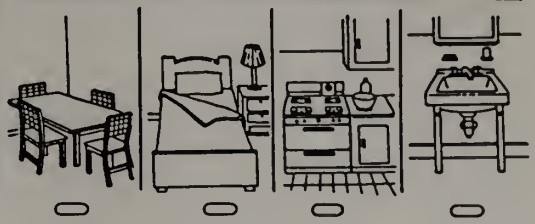
1. The door is open.



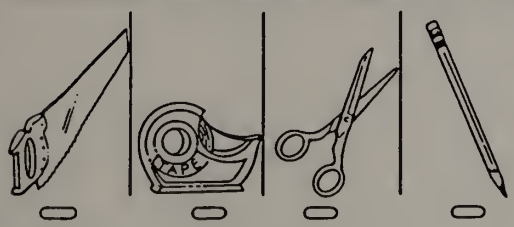
2. Where is the cat?



3. Here are two bikes.



4. This room is for sleeping.



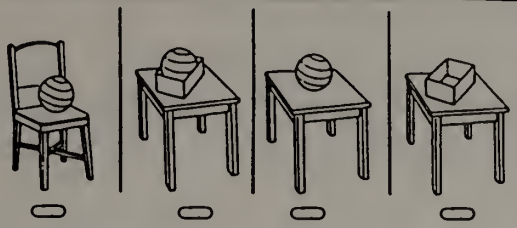
5. What does Ted need to cut paper?

6. Only one girl has a balloon.

7. They sat under the tree.

8. Ben wants to know what time it is.

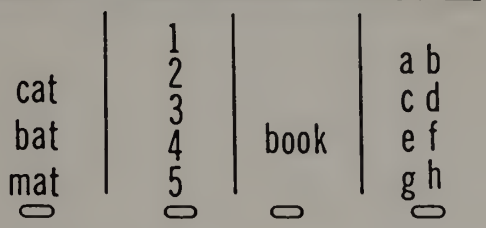
GO ON



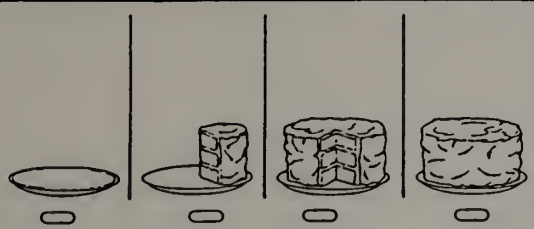
9. The ball is in a box on the table.

10. Which picture shows clouds over the city?

11. This man is walking with his dog.



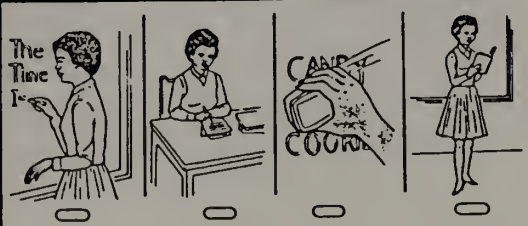
12. Here are some words.



13. Most of the cake has been eaten.

14. Pedro's uncle took him to see a ball game.

15. After dinner, people on our block often sit on their front steps and talk.



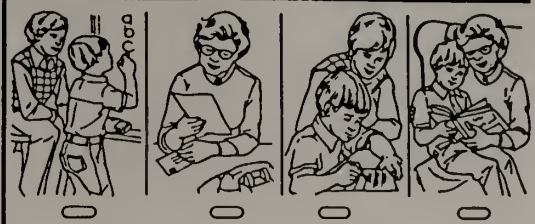
16. The teacher is writing on the blackboard.

GO ON

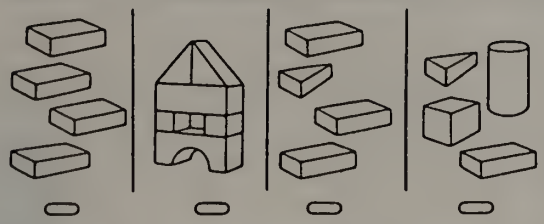
17. I have not worn my new shoes yet. They are still in the box.

18. This animal lives in the water.

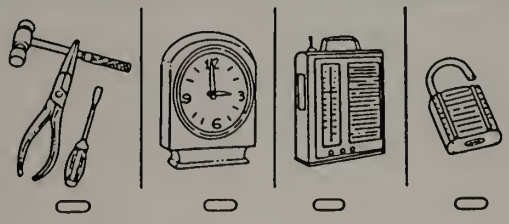
19. He hung up his coat before he took off his cap.



20. When Walt writes a letter to his grandmother, his brother helps him spell some of the words.

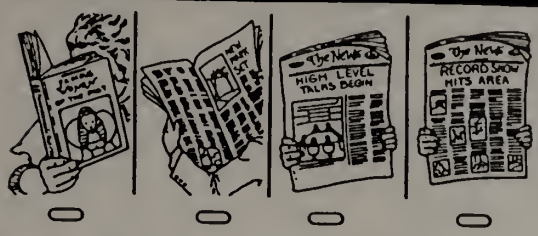


21. All of the blocks are the same.



22. Mrs. Dumont has a small shop where she not only sells new clocks, but fixes old ones, too. What does Mrs. Dumont fix?

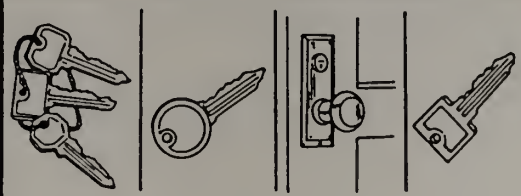
GO ON



23. There is a big picture on the front page of this newspaper.

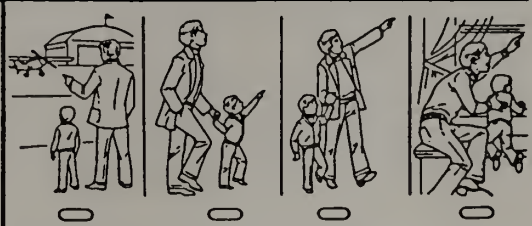
24. Frank has been to the store for his mother. He bought some cans of soup. Now he is putting them away.

25. The girls are playing "follow the leader." The smallest girl is in front. She is hopping on one foot.



26. Monica has three keys, but only the one with the round head will open her front door. Which picture shows her front door key?

27. Which sign means you should not cross the street?



28. Wayne and his father were walking along the street. His father pointed to an airplane flying high above them.

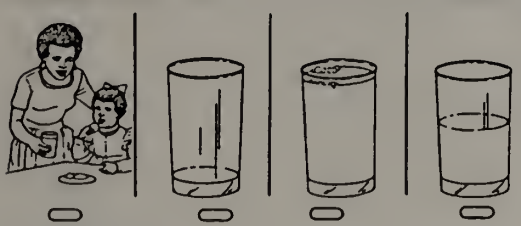
GO ON

29. Jess saw the doctor before school started. He was not sick. He just needed a checkup before he could play on the school football team.

30. Victor took a box of cookies and two cans of juice to the club meeting.

31. Judy's friend Sandra lives on top of Franklin Hill. It is hard work getting up there with a bicycle, but easy going home. Which picture shows Judy on her way to visit Sandra?

32. You should not skate where you see this sign.



33. June's mother gave her a full glass of milk. June drank only half of it. Which picture shows how much was left in her glass?

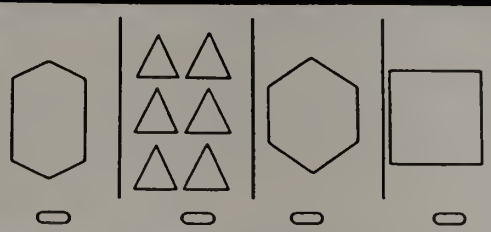
34. Helen wanted a job. Mrs. Fisher, who lived next door, said, "I will pay you to water my houseplants while I am away." Which picture shows Helen at this job?

GO ON

35. I pushed the switch, but the lamp did not go on. Then I put in a new light bulb. The lamp still did not work. Why didn't the lamp go on?

36. Ruth found four pretty shells at the beach. Laura found many more. Which are the shells that Laura found?

37. Glenn had an apple in his lunchbox today. Cindy had a banana. They traded fruits because each one liked the other's better. Which picture shows them after they traded?



38. This hexagon has six sides that are all the same length.

39. Because she works at a zoo, this animal doctor does not treat pet cats and dogs. She treats more unusual animals. Which picture shows her with one of these?

40. When it is winter in Canada, it is summer in Argentina. What do people in Argentina wear while Canadians are dressing warmly for winter?

STOP

Practice Page

1

car ⬭
mar ⬭
far ⬭
jar ⬭

2

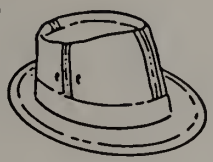
⬭

3

run ⬭
rut ⬭
rust ⬭
rub ⬭

4

nap ⬭
lap ⬭
clap ⬭
camp ⬭



5

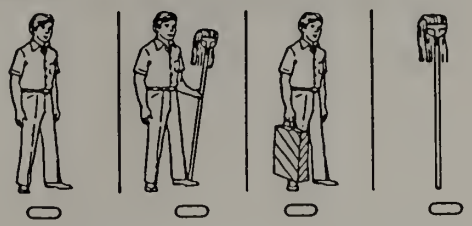
hit ⬭
hunt ⬭
hat ⬭
heat ⬭

6

fog ⬭
rod ⬭
dog ⬭
nod ⬭

⬭ ⬭ ⬭ ⬭

1. Jane is sitting.



⬭ ⬭ ⬭ ⬭

2. Which picture shows a man with a mop?

APPENDIX C:

ATTITUDE TOWARD READING SCALE

ATTITUDE TOWARD READING SCALE

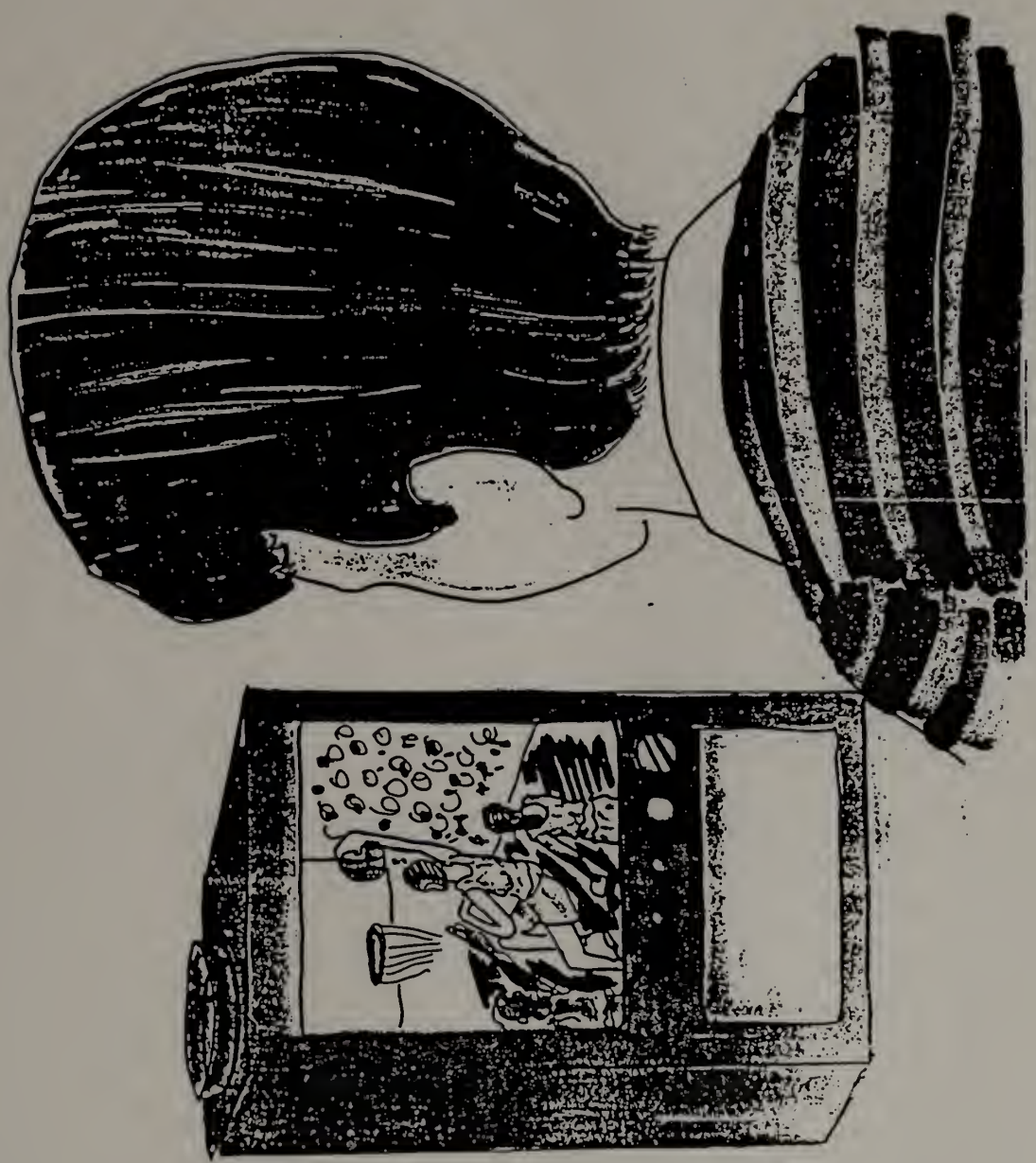
Score Form

Student's Name: _____

Grade: _____ Sex: _____ Age: _____ Group: _____

Picture Activity	Like To Do	Undecided	Don't Like To Do
1. Bicycle Riding			
2. Rollerskating			
3. Adult and Child Reading			
4. Watching TV			
5. Reading a Book			
6. Drawing/Painting			
7. Swimming			
8. Group Reading			
9. Running			
10. Reading a Book			
11. Playing Baseball			
12. Jumping Rope			

INSTRUCTIONS: Place a checkmark (✓) in the column which corresponds to the answer indicated by the examinee.



APPENDIX D:

CHILDREN'S BOOKS USED IN THE STUDY

CHILDREN'S BOOKS USED IN THE STUDY

Introduction

The books included in this appendix were selected from four major sources: (1) the analyses of children's literature on Puerto Rican themes contained in two issues (1973, 1983) of the Council on Interracial Books for Children, especially those in the 1983 issue written by Dr. Sonia Nieto; (2) the analyses of the Black experience in children's literature in Dr. Rudine Sims' Shadow and Substance; (3) the list suggested in Jim Trelease's The Read-Aloud Handbook (1982); and (4) the suggestions made on a questionnaire by the elementary level teachers of two Massachusetts school districts (see Appendix F). Needless to say, there was considerable overlapping of suggested titles amongst these sources.

All of the books selected are picture books because illustrations form an important part of the limited-English speaker's system of conceptual cues. Also, some of the selections represent important socially and culturally relevant themes; others were selected because of the opportunity they provide to experience fantasy and make-believe, dreams and reality, humor and sadness, or what Jim Trelease refers to as "the universality of human experience." Also, every attempt has been made to select books written in English which most closely resemble the standard English of the classroom, although stories with Black English or Spanish-influenced English were also included. Finally, age and grade appropriateness constituted an important selection criteria even though the books represent a variety of topics and linguistic levels.

The final list of books which appears in this appendix represents the choices of the teachers who worked on the project and of this researcher. In some cases, selections that we had wished to include had to be eliminated because they were unavailable from the publishers or through local or interlibrary loans.

Children's Books

Stories on Puerto Rican Themes

Chardiet, Bernice. Juan Bobo and the Pig: A Puerto Rican Folktale Retold. Illustrated by Hope Merryman. New York: Walker, 1973.

Getsinger, John. Luis: A Bilingual Story. Detroit, Michigan: Blaine Ethridge, 1976.

Kesselman, Wendy. Angelita. Illustrated by Norman Holt. New York: Hill and Wang, 1962.

Martel, Cruz. Yagua Days. Illustrated by Jerry Pinkney. New York: Dial, 1976.

Rudeen, Kenneth. Roberto Clemente. Illustrated by Frank Mullings. New York: T. Y. Crowell, 1974.

The Black Experience in Children's Literature

Clifton, Lucille. My Friend Jacob. Illustrated by Thomas DiGrayia. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1980.

_____. The Boy Who Didn't Believe in Spring. Illustrated by Brinton Turkle. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1973.

_____. Don't You Remember? Illustrated by Evaline Ness. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1973.

Greenfield, Eloise. Honey, I Love and Other Poems. Illustrated by Leo and Diane Dillon. New York: T. Y. Crowell, 1978.

_____. She Come Bringing Me That Baby Girl. Illustrated by John Steptoe. New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1974.

Myers, Walter Dean. The Dancers. Illustrated by Anne Rockwell. New York: Parents, 1972.

_____. The Dragon Takes A Wife. Illustrated by Ann Grifalconi. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1972.

Steptoe, John. My Special Best Words. New York: Viking, 1974.

Suggestions Made by Jim Trelease

Ambrus, Victor. Mishka. New York: Warne, 1978.

Bunting, Eve. The Big Red Barn. Illustrated by Howard Knotts. New York: Harcourt, 1979.

Carrick, Carol, and Carrick, Donald. Old Mother Witch. New York: Seabury, 1975.

Devlin, Wende, and Devlin, Harry. Cranberry Thanksgiving. New York: Parents, 1971.

Freeman, Don. Norman the Doorman. New York: Puffin, 1981.

Gackenback, Dick. Do You Love Me? New York: Dell, 1978.

Hass, Irene. The Maggie B. New York: Atheneum, 1975.

Hutchins, Pat. Don't Forget the Bacon. New York: Puffin, 1978.

Levine, Joan. A Bedtime Story. Illustrated by Gail Owens. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1975.

Mayer, Mercer. East of the Sun and West of the Moon. New York: Four Winds, 1980.

_____. Lisa Lou and the Yeller Belly Swamp. New York: Four Winds, 1976.

Silverstein, Shel. The Giving Tree. New York: Harper, 1964.

Waber, Barnard. Ira Sleeps Over. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1975.

Zion, Gene. Harry, the Dirty Dog. Illustrated by Margaret B. Graham. New York: Harper, 1976.

Kaskin, Karla. Herbert Hated Being Small.

Keats, Ezra Jack. The Snowy Day. New York: Puffin Books, 1980.

Kellogg, Steven. The Mystery of the Flying Orange Pumpkin. New York: Dial Press, 1980.

Kroll, Steven. Amanda and the Giggling Ghosts. Illustrated by Dick Gackenback. New York: Holiday House, 1980.

Pearson, Susan. Everybody Knows That.

Tobias, Tobi. Chasing the Goblins Away. New York: Warne, 1977.

Tressett, Alvin. White Snow, Bright Snow. New York: Lothrop, Leer Shepard and Company, 1947.

Yagawa, Sumiko. The Crane Wife. Translated by Katherine Paterson. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1981.

Yaroslava. Tusya and the Pot of Gold. New York: Antheneum, 1971.

Titles Suggested by Monolingual
Regular English Classroom Teachers

Arkin, Alan. The Lemming Condition. Illustrated by Joan Sandin. New York: Harper and Row, 1976.

Alexander, Lloyd. Time Cat. Illustrated by Bill Sokol. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963.

Bate, Lucy. Little Rabbit's Loose Tooth. Illustrated by Diane De Groat. New York: Crown Publisher, 1975.

Blume, Judy. Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing. Illustrated by Roy Doty. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1972.

Bleeker, Sonia. The Navajo. Illustrated by Patricia Boodell. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1955.

Charlip, Remy. Fortunately. New York: Parents Magazine Press, 1964.

Christopher, John. The White Mountains. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1967.

Cleary, Beverly. Ramona, The Brave. Illustrated by Alan Tiegreen. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1975.

_____. Ramona, The Pest. Illustrated by Louis Darling. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1968.

Collier, James Lincoln, and Collier, Christopher. My Brother Sam Is Dead. New York: Four Winds Press, 1974.

Dahl, Roald. Danny, The Champion of the World. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1978.

Fleishman, Paul. The Half-A-Moon Inn. New York: Scholastic, 1982.

Gardiner, John R. Stone Fox. New York: T. Y. Crowell, 1980.

Hamilton, Virginia. The House of Dies Drear. Illustrated by Eros Kieth. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1968.

Kerr, M. E. Dinky Hocker Shoots Smack. New York: Harper and Row, 1972.

Lamorisse, Albert. The Red Balloon. New York: Doubleday, 1956.

Levoy, Myron. Alan and Naomi. New York: Harper and Row, 1978.

L'Engle, Madeline. Wrinkle in Time. New York: Straus, 1962.

Lobel, Arnold. Frog and Toad Are Friends. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

Mayer, Mercer. The Boy, The Dog and The Frog. New York: Dial Press, 1967.

Milne, A. A. The House at Poons Corner. Illustrated by Ernest H. Shepard. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1956.

Mirsky, Reba. Thirty-One Brothers and Sisters. Illustrated by W. T. Mars. New York: Follett Publishing Company, 1952.

Mowat, Farley. Owls in the Family. Illustrated by Robert Frankenberg. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1961.

O'Brean, Robert. Mrs. Frisby and The Rats of NIMH. Illustrated by Zena Bernstein. New York: Atheneum, 1971.

Paterson, Katherine. Bridge to Terabithia. Illustrated by Donna Diamond. New York: T. Y. Crowell, 1977.

Platt, Kin. Big Max. Illustrated by Robert Tapshire. New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

Rawls, Wilson. Where the Red Fern Grows. New York: Doubleday, 1961.

Rock, Gail. Thanksgiving Treasure. Illustrated by Charles C. Gehm. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974.

_____. House Without A Christmas Tree. Illustrated by Charles C. Gehm. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974.

Rockwell, Anne. The Awful Mess. New York: Parents Magazine Press, 1973.

Silverstein, Shel. Where the Sidewalk Ends. New York: Harper and Row, 1974.

Slobodkin, Louis. Space Ship Under the Apple Tree. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company, 1952.

Smith, Robert K. Chocolate Fever. New York: Dell, 1978.

Steig, William. Sylvester and the Magic Pebbles. New York: Windmill Books/Simon and Shuster, 1959.

Waber, Bernard. But Names Will Never Hurt Me. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1976.

White, E. B. Trumpet of the Swan. Illustrated by Edward Frascino. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

_____. Charlotte's Web. Illustrated by Garth Williams. New York: Harper and Row, 1952.

_____. Stuart Little. Illustrated by Garth Williams. New York: Harper and Row, 1945.

Zolotow, Charlotte. The Hating Book. Illustrated by Ben Shecter. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Titles Suggested by ESL and Bilingual Classroom Teachers

Alegria, Ricardo E. Cuentos Folkloricos de Puerto Rico. Illustrated by Rafael Seco. Puerto Rico: Coleccion de Estudios Puertorriquenos, 1974.

Belpre, Pura. Ote. Illustrated by Paul Galdone. New York: Pantheon Books, 1969.

_____. Santiago. Illustrated by Symeon Shimin. New York: Warne, 1969.

_____. Perez y Martina. Illustrated by Carlos Sanchez. New York: Warne, 1966.

_____. Juan Bobo and The Queen's Necklace. Illustrated by Christine Price. New York: Warne, 1962.

Bemelmans, Ludwig. Madeline's Rescue. New York: Viking Press, 1953.

Blume, Judy. Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing. Illustrated by Roy Doty. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1972.

_____. The One in the Middle Is the Green Kangaroo.

Brown, Margaret Wise. The Runaway Bunny. Illustrated by Clement Hurd. New York: Harper and Row, 1972.

Eastman, P. D. Are You My Mother? New York: Random House/Beginner Books, 1960.

_____. Eres tu mi mama? Translated by Carlos Rivera. New York: Random House, 1967.

*Evans, Charles Seddon. Cinderella. Illustrated by Arthur Rackham. New York: Viking Press, 1972.

*Galdone, Paul. The Gingerbread Boy. New York: Seabury, 1975.

Hoff, Syd. Danny and the Dinosaur. New York: Harper and Row, 1958.

_____. Danny y el dinosaurio. Translated by Pura Belpre. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Keats, Ezra Jack. The Snowy Day. New York: Viking Press, 1962.

Krauss, Ruth. The Carrot Seed. Illustrated by Crockett Johnson. New York: Harper and Row, 1945.

Lamorisse, Albert. The Red Balloon. New York: Doubleday, 1956.

McClosky, Robert. Blueberries for Sal. New York: Viking Press, 1948.

Miles, Miska. Annie and The Old One. Illustrated by Peter Parnall. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1971.

Minarik, Else H. Little Bear. Illustrated by Maurice Sendak. New York: Harper and Row, 1961.

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*Translations in Spanish are available.

_____. Osito. Translated by Pura Belpre. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

*Perrault, Charles. Cinderella. Illustrated by Marcia Brown. New York: Scribner, 1952.

*_____. Cinderella. Translated by John Fowles. Illustrated by Sheilah Beckett. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1974.

Dr. Seuss, pseud. (Theodor S. Geisel). The Cat in the Hat. New York: Random House, 1957.

_____. On Beyond Zebra. New York: Random House, 1955.

_____. Bartholomew and The Oobleck. New York: Random House, 1950.

_____. Thidwick, The Big-Hearted Moose. New York: Random House, 1948.

_____. McElligot's Pool. New York: Random House, 1947.

_____. Horton Hatches the Egg. New York: Random House, 1940.

_____. The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins. New York: Vanguard, 1938.

_____. And To Think That I Saw It On Mulberry Street. New York: Vanguard, 1937.

Steig, William. Sylvester and The Magic Pebbles. New York: Windmill Books/Simon and Shuster, 1959.

Tresselt, Alvin. White Snow, Bright Snow. Illustrated by Roger Duvoisin. New York: Lothrop, 1955.

Waber, Bernard. Ira Sleeps Over. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.

Yolen, Jane. The Seeing Stick. Illustrated by Remy Charlip and Demetra Maraslis. New York: T. Y. Crowell, 1977.

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*Translations in Spanish are available.

APPENDIX E:

TEACHER'S QUESTION AND OBSERVATION GUIDE

Title of the Story: _____

Author: _____ Date: _____

Time of Reading: _____

Comments: _____

_____

_____

Teacher's Post Reading Questions

1. _____

_____

2. _____

_____

3. _____

_____

Teacher's Observation Checklist*

Instructions: Place a checkmark (✓) in the appropriate column each time the event described takes place.

	Before Reading	During Reading	After Reading
1 Pupils Responses to Text			
1-1 Comments or questions about the vocabulary			
1-2 Repeats exact words of the story			
1-3 Offers definitions or explanations			
1-4 Predicts what comes next			
1-5 Rephrases in own words what has happened in the story . .			

*Linda Brissey, "Observing and Recording Children's Responses to Literature Read Aloud," Insights Into Open Education, Vol. 15, No. 1., 1982, ERIC, ED 219767.

Teacher's Observation Checklist (Continued)

	Before Reading	During Reading	After Reading
2 Pupil Responses to Story Structure			
2-1 Questions or comments on the plot or story action			
2-2 Questions or comments on the characters			
2-3 Questions or comments on the setting			
2-4 Questions or comments on the theme of the story			
3 Pupil Non-Verbal Responses			
3-1 Laughter			
3-2 Exclamations; e.g., sighs, groans, gasps			
3-3 Other sounds; e.g., whistles, motor sounds, train, etc. . .			
4 Pupil Response to Physical Features of the Book			
4-1 Cover			
4-2 Illustrations			
4-3 Size of book			
4-4 Age and/or condition			
5 Pupil Personal Response to the Story			
5-1 Statements of Pleasure (p) or Displeasure (d)			
5-2 Statements offering personal knowledge and/or experience			
6 Pupil Supplies "The End"			

APPENDIX F:

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AT AMHERST
School of Education
Furcolo Hall
Amherst, MA 01003

March 17, 1983

Dear Colleagues:

As educators, we all know that the ability to read is a critical ingredient in the education of any individual struggling for an equal chance to succeed in our competitive society. However, the complexity of the learning-to-read task is greatly enlarged when the learner is trying to develop this skill in a language which is neither the native nor the dominant one.

As a researcher in the Bilingual-Multicultural Education Professions Program of the School of Education, I am in the midst of conducting a study of the instructional methods and techniques which can be applied to the specific reading needs of Limited-English or Non-English speaking children. In order to do this, I would like to know your opinion on specific issues which focus on oral reading of stories in your classroom. It will not take more than thirty minutes to respond to the questions attached, and your participation and contribution to this study will be greatly appreciated. Once I have the results, you will be provided with a list of the stories (children's books) most used by other elementary school teachers in your area for storytime reading purposes.

When you have completed the form, please return it to your principal's office or to Room 109, School of Education. If you have any questions concerning the study, please contact me at the following:

Telephone: 549-0818/Home; 545-0273/Office
Addresses: B-14 North Village Apartments
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002
or
BMEPP, School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts 01003

I will be very happy to answer your questions or give you further information concerning the study.

Sincerely yours,

Carmen May
Research Assistant

CM:tle

PLEASE RETURN BY FRIDAY, APRIL 22

QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to determine teachers' attitudes towards the practice of reading aloud to children in class. This is not a test and may be answered anonomously. Please respond to each statement based upon your first impression, and respond to all items on the questionnaire.

Next to each item is a series of choices. Please circle the response that best fits your feelings about that statement.

Key:

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

Please circle only one answer for each statement.

Example:

All children enjoy reading. SA (A) U D SD

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Part I

1.	I find reading to my students an enjoyable activity.	SA	A	U	D	SD
2.	Students enjoy being read to.	SA	A	U	D	SD
3.	It is better to serialize (break up into several days) stories to be read to students.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4.	Reading stories aloud to students will improve their reading comprehension skills.	SA	A	U	D	SD
5.	Reading aloud to students makes me feel uncomfortable.	SA	A	U	D	SD
6.	Reading aloud to students is a worthwhile activity.	SA	A	U	D	SD

Key:

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

7. It is better to read a story aloud from beginning to end in one session. SA A U D SD

8. Reading aloud to students will improve their attitudes toward reading. SA A U D SD

9. There are more important things to do than reading aloud to students during classtime. SA A U D SD

10. Students should generally select the stories they would like the teacher to read aloud. SA A U D SD

11. I do not spend as much time reading aloud to my students as I would like to. SA A U D SD

12. Reading aloud to students will not help them improve their reading comprehension skills. SA A U D SD

13. Reading aloud to students will help them improve their oral language skills. SA A U D SD

14. Reading aloud to students will improve their understanding of the purpose of reading. SA A U D SD

15. There isn't enough time in the school day to allow time for reading aloud to my students. SA A U D SD

Part II

Please fill in the information requested below.

Name at least two stories (children's books) you have recently read (or would consider reading) aloud to your students. There is some space provided in case you wish to comment as to why you have made this particular selection.

Story I: _____

Comments (if any): _____

_____

Story II: _____

Comments (if any): _____

_____

Part III

Please fill in the following information:

1. The average age of your present students lies in which of the following groups (write your response in the space provided):

   (a) 5-6+ years
   (b) 7-8+ years
   (c) 9-10+ years
   (d) 10-12+ years

   Answer: _____

2. What grade are you currently teaching? Answer: _____

3. Which of the following do you consider yourself?

   (a) Reading Teacher
   (b) English as a Second Language Teacher
   (c) Bilingual (Native Language) Teacher
   (d) Early Childhood Teacher
   (e) Mathematics Teacher
   (g) Science Teacher
   (h) Social Studies Teacher
   (i) Foreign Language Teacher
   (j) Other (specify): _____

   Answer: _____

4. How many years experience do you have as a teacher?

   (a) Less than one year
   (b) One to three years
   (c) Four to six years
   (d) Seven to nine years
   (e) Ten or more years

   Answer: _____

Part IV

If you would like to comment on any of the items in this survey, please use the space below.

APPENDIX G:

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE BY MONOLINGUAL REGULAR ENGLISH CLASSROOM TEACHERS/ ESL AND BILINGUAL CLASSROOM TEACHERS

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE BY
MONOLINGUAL REGULAR ENGLISH CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Key:
SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I find reading to my students an enjoyable activity.	31(86.1)	5(13.8)	-	-	-
2. Students enjoy being read to.	30(83.3)	6(16.6)	-	-	-
3. It is better to serialize (break up into several days) stories to be read to students.	4(11.1)	5(13.8)	21(58.3)	5(13.8)	1(2.7)
4. Reading stories aloud to students will improve their reading comprehension skills.	21(58.3)	11(30.5)	4(11.1)	-	-
5. Reading aloud to students makes me feel uncomfortable.	-	-	-	6(16.6)	30(83.3)
6. Reading aloud to students is a worthwhile activity.	30(83.3)	6(16.6)	-	-	-
7. It is better to read a story aloud from beginning to end in one session.	1(2.7)	4(11.1)	24(66.6)	5(13.8)	2(5.5)
8. Reading aloud to students will improve their attitudes toward reading.	21(58.3)	15(41.6)	-	1(2.7)	-
9. There are more important things to do than reading aloud to students during classtime.	-	2(5.5)	2(5.5)	12(33.3)	20(55.5)
10. Students should generally select the stories they would like the teacher to read aloud.	3(8.3)	8(22.2)	12(33.3)	11(30.5)	2(5.5)
11. I do not spend as much time reading aloud to my students as I would like to.	7(19.4)	13(36.1)	-	12(33.3)	4(11.1)

Key:
SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
12. Reading aloud to students will not help them improve their reading comprehension skills.	-	-	3(8.3)	8(22.2)	25(69.4)
13. Reading aloud to students will help them improve their oral language skills.	14(38.8)	18(50.0)	3(8.3)	1(2.7)	-
14. Reading aloud to students will improve their understanding of the purpose of reading.	18(50.0)	15(41.6)	3(8.3)	-	-
15. There isn't enough time in the school day to allow time for reading aloud to my students.	-	3(8.3)	2(5.5)	10(27.7)	21(58.3)

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE BY
ESL AND BILINGUAL CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Key:
SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I find reading to my students an enjoyable activity.	16(66.6)	8(33.3)	-	-	-
2. Students enjoy being read to.	14(58.3)	8(33.3)	1(4.1)	1(4.1)	-
3. It is better to serialize (break up into several days) stories to be read to students.	2(8.3)	7(29.1)	11(45.8)	3(12.5)	1(4.1)
4. Reading stories aloud to students will improve their reading comprehension skills.	13(54.1)	10(41.6)	1(4.1)	-	-
5. Reading aloud to students makes me feel uncomfortable.	-	-	-	6(25.0)	18(75.0)
6. Reading aloud to students is a worthwhile activity.	18(75.0)	6(25.0)	-	-	-
7. It is better to read a story aloud from beginning to end in one session.	-	11(45.8)	9(37.5)	4(16.6)	-
8. Reading aloud to students will improve their attitudes toward reading.	14(58.3)	10(41.6)	-	-	-
9. There are more important things to do than reading aloud to students during classtime.	-	2(8.3)	1(4.1)	16(66.6)	5(20.8)
10. Students should generally select the stories they would like the teacher to read aloud.	3(12.5)	12(50.0)	4(16.6)	5(20.8)	-
11. I do not spend as much time reading aloud to my students as I would like to.	3(12.5)	17(70.8)	-	4(16.6)	-

Key:
SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
12. Reading aloud to students will not help them improve their reading comprehension skills.	1(4.1)	1(4.1)	1(4.1)	8(33.3)	13(54.1)
13. Reading aloud to students will help them improve their oral language skills.	13(54.0)	11(45.8)	-	-	-
14. Reading aloud to students will improve their understanding of the purpose of reading.	12(50.0)	11(45.8)	1(4.1)	-	-
15. There isn't enough time in the school day to allow time for reading aloud to my students.	1(4.1)	5(20.8)	2(8.3)	13(54.1)	3(12.5)

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS OF

MONOLINGUAL ENGLISH CLASSROOM TEACHERS

(A3-MM3)

Serializing is better with older students, whereas reading the entire book in one sitting is better for the very young--my opinion.

(A4-MM4)

I find that whenever I read a story aloud to the class, the children tend to take it out for their own silent reading time. They also look for books of the same type in the library. For this reason, I continue to make time to read out loud to them.

(A11-FR2)

I would love a list of stories to read to my students. Thanks!

(A12-FR3)

Part I, Questions 3 and 7 are not appropriate to all situations. I read novels to my kids sometimes to add information to units of study, sometimes based on their request, sometimes because I think they'll enjoy it and might not read or hear it otherwise, and always for fun. If it's a 200 page novel, I have no choice but to serialize. Other times, I choose a story I can read in one sitting. I found those two questions limiting and frustrating. Sorry about my answers for Question 10, Part I, but I run the gamut in terms of my opinion as illustrated above in talking about why I read to my kids.

(A13-FR4)

Serialization questions depend on the length of the book; however, most do require serialization.

I have encountered some parent opposition to reading aloud in a subtle manner, i.e., "Why aren't they doing more writing?"

(A14-FR5)

My observation is that children love to be read to; the book must be chosen with care--it must be fast moving with a minimum of description (see J. Trelease's book).

(A23-CF7)

In my fourteen years of teaching, I've always read to my classes. I feel that it is an important part of my curriculum and will be no matter what age I teach.

(A24-CF8)

I find reading aloud a good way to improve listening skills and vocabulary. Reading parts of a book aloud and letting students borrow my book to read by themselves has been an effective motivator. When reading whole books to the class over an extended period of time, students benefit from predicting what will happen next and recalling and summarizing orally what has happened previously.

I would definitely like a copy of the reading list used by other teachers.

(A23-CF9)

I tend to alternate between long books to be read over a period of time and short (one time) books. It depends on the mood of my class.

I also read a wide variety of topics.

I have an ESL child this year who I feel has profited greatly by hearing the books. His verbal skills continue to surprise me--he frequently uses words I know he cannot read yet in his speaking.

(A27-WW1)

I marked "3" and "7" as "Undecided" because I believe strongly in doing <u>both</u>--<u>not one over the other</u>.

(A31-WW5)

I'd be interested in seeing your results.

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS OF

ESL AND BILINGUAL CLASSROOM TEACHERS

(H4)

I love to read to the kids and I let the kids read "to us."

(H11)

The younger children seem to enjoy a complete story. They don't seem to remember details if the story is too long or serialized.

(H13)

I should probably read aloud more often than I do.

(H15)

I often refer to Jim Trelease's stories to read aloud; also list of interracial books for children.

(H16)

It is my opinion that the students would rather read the story aloud among themselves than have the teacher read it for them. Although, the teachers should be there to clarify and help them read what is "in-between" the lines and for what does not seem "visible" to them. The story is more interesting to them when they can relate events of the story to experiences they have been through or facts they know in real life.

(H17)

In my school this year, the principal started SSR (Sustained Silent Reading) for fifteen minutes after lunch. Due to scheduling in my class, SSR was not as successful as it should have been. I do feel that oral reading is very important because we can expose children to various types of books and stories and thus help them create more of an interest in books.

(H24)

There is nothing I enjoy more than reading aloud to my students. I think its benefits run the whole gamut--reading language development, emotional and social growth, and pure fun.

APPENDIX H:

READING SCHEDULE OF STORIES READ TO THE STUDENTS

READING SCHEDULE OF STORIES READ TO THE STUDENTS

Story	E-1	11	E-2	11	E-3	11	E-4	11
Juan Bobo and the Pig	10/3/83		10/3/83		10/17/83		10/17/83	
Angelita	--- ---		--- ---		10/5/83 10/6/83		10/24/83 10/25/83	
Cranberry Thanksgiving	10/6/83		10/5/83		11/8/83		11/8/83	
Harry, The Dirty Dog	10/7/83		10/7/83		10/12/83		10/12/83	
Ira Sleeps Over	10/12/83		10/12/83		10/4/83		10/5/83	
Do You Love Me?	10/14/83		10/14/83		---		---	
The Boy Who Didn't Believe in Spring	10/18/83		10/18/83		10/26/83		10/26/83	
Old Mother Witch	10/21/83		10/21/83		10/28/83		10/28/83	
The Dancers	10/24/83		10/24/83		---		---	
Don't You Remember?	10/25/83		10/25/83		9/28/83		10/24/83	
Luis, A Bilingual Story	10/26/83 10/27/83		10/26/83 10/27/83		--- ---		--- ---	
Chasing the Goblins Away	---		---		10/27/83		10/27/83	
The Mystery of the Flying Orange Pumpkin	10/28/83		10/28/83		10/31/83		10/31/83	
Don't Forget the Bacon!	10/31/83		10/31/83		9/30/83		9/28/83	
Roberto Clemente	11/3/83 11/4/83		11/3/83 11/4/83		--- ---		--- ---	
Herbert Hated Being Small	11/7/83		11/7/83		11/17/83		11/17/83	
East of the Sun, West of the Moon	11/8/83		11/8/83		11/18/83		11/18/83	
Yagua Days	11/10/83 ---		11/10/83 ---		11/14/83 11/15/83		11/14/83 11/15/83	
Everybody Knows	11/14/83		11/14/83		11/21/83		11/21/83	

Story	E-1	11	E-2	11	E-3	11	E-4	11
Lisa Lou and the Yeller Swamp Belly	11/15/83		11/15/83		12/1/83		12/1/83	
The Crane Wife	11/16/83		11/16/83		12/16/83		12/14/83	
The Big Red Barn	11/17/83		11/17/83		---		---	
Amanda and the Giggling Ghosts	11/18/83		11/18/83		11/10/83		11/9/83	
My Special Best Words	11/22/83		11/22/83		11/22/83		11/22/83	
A Bedtime Story	11/28/83		11/28/83		12/2/83		12/2/83	
Tusya and the Pot of Gold	11/29/83		11/29/83		12/9/83		12/9/83	
The Dragon Takes A Wife	11/30/83		11/30/83		11/28/83		11/28/83	
The Snowy Day	12/2/83		12/2/83		12/5/83		12/5/83	
The Giving Tree	12/5/83		12/5/83		12/8/83		12/8/83	
Norman, The Doorman	12/8/83		12/8/83		---		---	
White Snow, Bright Snow	12/9/83		12/9/83		12/19/83		12/19/83	
The Maggie B	12/13/83		12/13/83		12/15/83		12/15/83	
She Come Bringing Me That	12/19/83		12/19/83		12/21/83		12/21/83	
Baby Girl, Mishka	12/20/83		12/20/83		12/13/83		12/13/83	
My Friend, Jacob	---		---		12/20/83		12/20/83	
Honey, I Love	No Dates Given							